

GENDER EFFECTS IN VALUES AND
NEGOTIATION OUTCOMES

By

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Within the past several decades the subject of gender differences in behavior has become a prominent area of scholarly interest and inquiry. Interests have been related to the areas of biology, social sciences and education. There is, however, little research that attempts to integrate these fields of interest. This study investigated whether or not gender differences in behavior that would be reflected in the personal values of negotiators and the outcomes of negotiations existed in actual collective bargaining settings.

Data including the gender of management and union negotiators, the salary of union negotiators (before and after negotiations), the average salary of the union representatives' constituents (before and after negotiations), the time in days and number of meetings necessary to settle the contract, the occurrence or the frequency of impasse and/or strike situations, the number of items to be negotiated and the number of items

on which agreement was reached were collected from 219 districts. A value survey was used to collect value information about management negotiators, union negotiators and non-negotiators to determine status and gender differences.

Major findings were as follows: differences as a function of gender were revealed in precipitated impasses and in the total time in days required to complete contract negotiations. Value differences were revealed as a function of gender and/or status. Results are discussed in terms of social impact.

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

Within the past several decades the subject of human gender differences has been a prominent area of scholarly inquiry. These differences have been examined and reported in terms of biological, social, and educational research. Biological research has provided results about mating procedures, the effects of hormones on physiology, brain development, sexual identity, and sex changes. Social research about sex differences has reported on male and female group development, bonding processes, territoriality, and dating behavior. Educational research studies have focused on the differences in male and female development, learning behavior differences and similarities, altruism, motor coordination, and other aspects of learning. Although such studies as are listed above do not exhaust the areas under investigation, they do indicate the interest of scholars from many fields. Of greater interest in terms of this study is that little has been done to integrate these discrete yet closely related fields of study.

The idea that males and females are innately predisposed to behave differently is supported by research in the fields of biology, social science, and education (Ables, 1972; Gelman, Carey & Gelman, 1981; Hamburg, 1974; Mitchell, 1981; Money & Ehrhardt, 1980; see Appendix A for additional

sources). Furthermore, the concept of differences in terminal and instrumental values¹ based on gender, personality, and social status is supported by research and by systems theory within a social context (Druckman, 1968; Druckman, Benton, Ali & Bagur, 1976; Kantér, 1975; Keasey, 1971; Krebs, 1970; Rokeach, 1973; Weir, 1982²).

This study was proposed to determine if value differences and behavior differences between males and females can be discerned in an actual life situation. It was specifically designed to investigate if male and female differences in behaviors reflect personal values which differ according to the status of the male or female or which vary as the status of the male or female varies. A bargaining situation was the context chosen because it was an environment for negotiation and resolution of differences and the behaviors and values of the persons involved were examined. Values are known to be reflected by socio-economic factors and status considerations (Rokeach, 1973; Webb, 1981).

Available literature in the area of collective bargaining and values did not reflect a consideration of gender differences on the process and outcome of negotiations (Adams, 1976; Benton, 1971, 1973; Fisher & Ury, 1982; Hochschild, 1973; Meeker & Weitzell-O'Neill, 1977; Neal, 1980; Terhune, 1970;

¹For this study a terminal value is a point or an end which the person would like to reach, such as a comfortable life, family security, or a world of beauty. An instrumental value, on the other hand, is a means by which to gain that end, a means such as ambition, helpfulness, or responsibility.

²Personal communication.

Tracy, 1974; Vidmar & McGrath, 1970; Weir, 1982¹). If gender-based value differences affect interactions between persons in a bargaining context, it would be of interest to investigate what outcomes appear to be affected and what value differences can be ascribed to males and females in a position to represent others. It would be instructive to derive this information from a natural setting with real negotiators rather than the simulated conflict settings such as the Prisoners Dilemma game, in which most prior investigations have taken place (Amidjaja & Vinacke, 1965; Aranoff & Tedeschi, 1968; Benton, 1973, 1975; Bond & Vinacke, 1961; Druckman, 1967; Druckman, Solomon & Zechmeister, 1972; Gamson, 1964; Lamm & Kogan, 1970; Lawler, 1975; McClintock, Messick, Kuhlman & Campos, 1973; McNeel, McClintock & Nutting, 1972; Pilisuk, Skolnick & Overstreet, 1968; Vallacher, Callahan & Messe, 1979; Vidmar & McGrath, 1970; Vinacke, Mogy, Powers, Langon & Beck, 1974; Wall, 1975).

Literature was not available which indicated whether or not male and/or female negotiators representing union and management constituencies could be expected to hold values similar to those of their own constituency, to those of the other representatives (against whom they negotiated), or similar values across positions with differences by gender alone. This study attempted to consider this question as it related to the process and product of collective bargaining.

The interaction of an individual's innate and/or biologically controlled behavioral predispositions and the

¹Personal communication.

response to experiences influence male and female behavior both independently and in interaction between males and females. Some studies suggest that females are predisposed to behave more cooperatively with more concern for equity and in a more altruistic manner than males (Bardwick & Douvan, 1971; Benton, 1975; Masters, 1971; McNelle, McClintock, & Nutting, 1972; Messe & Callahan, 1979; Wall, 1975; Walstedt, 1977; Ward, 1974). If cooperative interactions and responsibility toward others were feminine predispositions, it seemed feasible to suggest that those who reflect such dispositions, women, would (a) take less time to make contract agreements, (b) be less involved in conflict of interest in representing others, (c) demonstrate a more cooperative orientation in behavior which plays a role in strike/impasse situations, and ultimately (d) facilitate a greater percentage of completed agreements. These questions were considered in terms of the interaction of the negotiators based on gender and status: male management vs. male union, male management vs. female union, female management vs. male union, and female management vs. female union. This shed some light on behavioral differences that reflect biological predispositions in interaction with values formed through environmental experiences, and with influences which differ within the social setting for males and females. Seven topics were dealt with as specific questions in terms of results and discussion (see Chapters IV and V).

A search of the literature¹ revealed no studies of gender differences and values done in natural settings and in everyday situations such as collective bargaining. Most studies dealt with gaming or improvised conflict situations (Amidjaja & Vinacke, 1965; Aranoff & Tedeschi, 1968; Benton, 1971; Brown, 1970; Doise, 1969; Gamson, 1964). No sources associated the concept of gender differences and biological predisposition to behavior and development of values in association with social status and the role of a representative. Conflict of interest (as measured by the economic outcomes of negotiations) was not investigated in previous studies as a possible gender difference affecting negotiation outcomes.

Previous studies indicated modest evidence that a negotiator perceived as weaker was more likely to rely on the help of others, including outside help, thus taking more time and working less effectively. There was, however, no evidence which warranted the assumption that females should automatically be considered the weaker party in the role of negotiator (Benton, 1971, 1973, 1975; Grant & Sermat, 1969; Patel & Gordon, 1960; Pilisuk, Skolnick & Overstreet, 1968; Wall, 1977). Some evidence suggested that persons who have been more dependent are necessarily more sensitive to others in order to get their needs met (Bardwick & Douvan, 1971; Berkowitz & Daniels,

¹Literature search was conducted in the following bases: ERIC, dissertation abstracts, psychological abstracts, biological and medical abstracts, and business management abstracts.

1963; Schellenberg, 1965; Schopler & Bateson, 1965). Since the social status of females has historically been dependent, it seemed possible that females may have developed more sensitivity to others and may therefore be more attuned to the needs of others.

When behavior is considered as an outcome of biological predisposition in interaction with values derived from environmental experiences, such differences can be explained by historically different roles, expectations, and relevant situational and socializing experiences for males and females. Research from the field of biology supports this premise with evidence that brain development, influencing the acquisition of abilities, is itself influenced by experiences that are environmentally determined (Mitchell, 1981; Money & Ehrhardt, 1980; Money & Schwartz, 1978; Rossi, 1977a; Shapiro, Goldman, Steinbeck, & Neumann, 1976). Therefore gender differences in behavior and values will probably reflect changes in social opportunity, beliefs, and expectations, and change in expected patterns of interaction.

Synopsis of the Problem

This study was to determine if gender differences could be discerned in an actual life situation. Specifically it was designed to investigate whether or not gender differences in behavior existed that were reflected in the personal values of negotiators, and the outcomes of negotiations. The negotiation situation was used as a conflict environment in which gender differences might be revealed. Literature from studies

using simulated conflict situations, such as games, revealed differences attributed to gender for (a) the time needed to reach agreements, (b) strategy, cooperative vs. competitive, (c) concern for equity and in agreements, and (d) number of agreements completed (Kelley & Stahelski, 1970; Vinacke, Mogy, Powers, Langon, & Beck, 1974). The study attempted to ascertain if gender differences existed pertaining to these variables within a real conflict context, collective bargaining.

The gender of the opposing negotiators and the gender composition of the negotiating teams are independent variables. Differences in conflict of interest as a function of gender in the negotiator role were considered if the average increased salary differential of the union negotiating team was significantly larger than the average increased salary differential for the union constituency. The conflict of interest, impasse or no impasse situation, strike or no strike situation, total time from beginning to end of the negotiations, the number of meetings during negotiations, percent of agreements completed of those proposed and the terminal and instrumental values of the negotiators were the dependent variables. The gender differences of the constituent (non-negotiator) group were considered only in terms of the terminal and instrumental values. If significant gender differences exist, awareness of those differences and their effects, if any, on the process and outcomes of negotiations may help those involved in negotiations or the choice of representatives to negotiate to use the process (and its possible changes with the specific situation and economic climate) more efficiently and effectively.

Collective Bargaining Background

Within education the environment at the elementary and secondary levels invited the formation of unions. The system continues to function in a manner that invites formally defined relationships and channels through which to make agreements. "Managements are often said to have the labor relations systems they deserve. Thus the elementary and secondary educational systems with characteristically authoritarian managerial styles have been fertile ground for collective bargaining" (Duryea, Fisk, & Assoc., 1973, p. 22). Recent developments in higher education appear to have invited the same response (Duryea, Fisk, & Assoc., 1973).

Collective bargaining is a means, a method, used in achieving a goal, which is an agreement between two contending parties (Megal, 1970). In the context of this study this means was employed by teachers, as public employees, and school boards, as public employers. At present, there are 32 states which have enacted statutes for collective bargaining by public employees and employers (National Education Association, 1983, p. 6) and New Jersey, the site for this study, is one of the states which has such a statute.

Collective bargaining is the mechanism by which authorized representatives for teachers and authorized representatives for the school board negotiate a mutually acceptable and legally binding agreement with respect to employee hours, wages, terms, and conditions of employment (Duryea, Fisk, & Assoc., 1973). Once that agreement is accepted by both

parties, it is also the case that "the integrity of the agreement must not be lost, and that the terms of the contract are properly administered" (Riccio, 1977, p. 54).

The mechanism, or process, called collective bargaining differs from state to state, but it is clear that state statutes are based primarily upon the federal law which established the National Labor Relations Board (Wagner Act, 1935). There are eight states which do not have a law to govern the collective bargaining process and bargaining occurs under court order, executive order, or personnel policy. There are two states which permit "consultation" (Texas and Alabama), and eight states which have no mechanism for collective bargaining for public employees¹ (National Education Association, 1983, p. 6). Since collective bargaining developed in the private sector before it began for the public sector of employment, the history of employer hostility and lack of working class solidarity made unionization especially difficult in the United States, and violence was often a by-product of the disputes (Kimbrough & Nunnery, 1976; Richardson, 1972). The forerunners of modern unions which developed in the U.S.A. in the early 19th century were "subjected to economic pressure from employers, (and) the courts were hostile as were the legislature and executive branches of government" (Kimrough & Nunnery, 1976, p. 409).

¹Those states are Wyoming, Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico, Arkansas, Kentucky, and Ohio. National Education Association, NEA Today, April, 1983.

With the passage of the Wagner Act, referred to earlier, the union movement was legitimatized by the Congress of the United States. In effect, the Act required that private sector employers bargain with private sector employees, defined the rules and regulations to cover the process, and protected employees from arbitrary discharge and discipline. By 1947, and the passage of the Labor Management Relations Act, the legal foundation for collective bargaining was in place for the private sector of the economy.

These events provided the impetus for teachers to consider the use of the same mechanism. By 1870, the National Educational Association had been formed. After mergers with other groups it came into its final form as the National Education Association in 1906: the American Federation of Teachers, another teacher union organization, was formed in 1916 (Johansen, Collins, & Johnson, 1982).

Both national teacher organizations attempted to provide assistance and coordination for local teacher organizations in the field of collective bargaining where that was appropriate, and in non-bargaining fields that were of concern to teachers as professionals. It is clear that teachers did not immediately begin to clamor for the use of collective bargaining as a tool to regularize their relationship with public employers. In fact, many believed that once the public understood the need for greater funding for schools, and for the teachers themselves, such an awareness would result in satisfying those needs (Donley, 1976). It was not until

after 1950 that teachers in general began to recognize that such developments would not come about by simply waiting for the general public to become aware of the needs of teachers.

After World War I membership in the teacher organizations began to increase at a marked rate and organized action became increasingly aggressive. Some sources suggest that one of the major reasons was that the male-female composition of the teaching population changed; more men were recruited into the ranks of teaching (Kimbrough & Nunnery, 1976). In fact, within education "the turnover rate dropped, the educational level rose, and the feeling of professionalism with accompanying controls over the conditions of education grew" (Kimbrough & Nunnery, 1976, p. 411).

In 1961, the New York Federation of Teachers, which was affiliated with the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), voted to use collective bargaining as a tool for coming to agreement with their school board employers. In 1962, these teachers carried out a strike action in support of their demands and were successful in establishing an agreement. As the first occasion when a large urban system was involved in collective bargaining, this event had an impact on teachers in other parts of the country. Specifically, it was the catalyst which changed not only the approach of the American Federation of Teachers but also the posture of the National Education Association. By 1970, both organizations were in full support of collective bargaining as a process for constructing contracts with public employers, and for settling disputes. Today the American Federation of Teachers has 550,000 members and

the National Education Association has 1,800,000 members (Ellis, Cogan, & Howey, 1981). However, this growth in the past thirty years must be understood in the context that there are at least one-half of all teachers in the country who are not members of either organization.

For the purposes of this study, it should be clear that the foregoing is but a sketch of the development of collective bargaining as it affects school boards and teachers. In these terms, the context in which the actual bargaining goes on is the central focus of the study, and it is clear that there are differences among the representatives who sit on opposite sides of a collective bargaining table. No doubt, their role expectations differ, and it is clear that their statuses are different. For example, teachers in the state of New Jersey receive annual salaries of "approximately \$17,075 annually," ranking the state 11th among the 50 states (Dearman & Plisko, 1982, p. 29). Men and women who represent the school board and are administrators in school systems "receive salaries about twice as high as those of classroom teachers" (Educational Research Services, 1980, p. 12). It is also very probable that attitudes and even skills are different. In effect, the representatives on opposite sides of the table are there for different purposes, but they are also there to compromise and to come to an agreement which will serve as a legally binding contract.

The history of collective bargaining in education appears to reveal gender differences. Though the majority of

individuals teaching continues to be women, the increasing number of males in education began to have an impact around the late 1950's with the organization of labor unions in the public sector. Within education support was received from private industry for the formation of unions. The public view of teachers and the characteristics of teachers began to change. As previously noted, one characteristic undergoing change was the general male-female composition of the teaching profession. A point of interest in this brief historical perspective is the timing of the development of a more aggressive interaction style (the formation of unions and use of actions such as the strike and the acceptance of collective bargaining) and the noted change in the composition of the teaching profession.

Within the context of negotiation process the negotiators themselves have important impact on the process of bargaining: "Changes in the structure and functions of systems . . . create new conflicts of interests among groups and reveal the existence of conflicts already present. As the system moves to a . . . power equilibrium, organization to advance collective interests appears to be a logical move to some groups, while to others organization is necessary to retain present advantages. This analysis does not imply that unionization solves the problem of the appropriate balance of power among interest groups or that it assures satisfactory access to the center of administrative power (It) is designed to illustrate the forces behind the movement" (Duryea, Fisk, & Assoc.,

1973, p. 13). Within the process "even if the negotiations proposal committee has succeeded in transferring the needs of the faculty into well-written concise proposals, its efforts can be rendered useless if equal attention is not given to the choice of the bargaining team." (Duryea, Fisk, & Assoc., 1973, p. 48). The literature reflects that the industrial adversary belief remains intact and must be considered by the individuals who represent others as negotiators. "The team member who approaches negotiations convinced that logic, facts, persuasiveness, and good manners will leave no alternative . . . but to accept had best stay far from the negotiating table. These reasonable tools, without the support of other bargaining weapons, will win few concessions" (Duryea, Fisk, & Assoc., 1973, p. 48). Some rulings of the National Labor Relations Board also appear to have discouraged attempts at problem solving modes of operation rather than adversary modes (e.g., General Electric Company and International Union of Electrical, Radio, & Machine Workers, Boulware Decision, Case Nos. 2-CA-7581, 12/16/64, 150 NLRD, No. 36).

It was the possibility of a relationship between gender differences and the outcomes of the bargaining process that this study attempted to investigate. To review briefly, in the late 1900's the National Education Association began and provided coordination in efforts to improve the professionalism of teaching. Professional improvement and dedication were emphasized in the period before World War II and efforts

were made to gain political power. During the 1950's the NEA and other supportive groups made efforts to bring teachers political power and control over education through improvement of the professionalism of teaching. In the 1960's many changes occurred. Two, apparently concurrent, changes of importance to this study are the support of teachers by organized labor (AFT) and the reported change in the behavior of teachers in the use of more aggressive and less subservient methods such as collective bargaining and strikes to achieve their goals. This might be attributed to the significant increase in the number of men teaching in elementary schools and the increase of men teachers to constitute a majority of the teachers in senior high schools. When, in 1961, the New York teachers voted for collective bargaining and in 1962 there was a strike, the posture of the teacher organizations became more aggressive. It was also noted that as the male-female composition of the teaching population changed, "the turnover rate dropped, the educational level rose, and the feeling of professionalism with accompanying controls over the conditions of education grew" (Kimbrough & Nunnery, 1976, p. 411).

The impact of the increase in the male population of teachers appears to have affected the status of the profession. The effects of expectation and socialization on the women and men who were teachers and the possible effects on their behavior and interactions are not discussed in this study. Instead, this study attempted to concentrate on the possible influence

of gender differences in social status and values in a collective bargaining context.

Significance of Possible Gender Differences
in Relation to Collective Bargaining

Collective bargaining has evolved to an art of considerable importance in the educational field (Amer. Assoc. of School Administrators, 1968; Duryea, Fisk, & Assoc., 1973; Kimbrough & Nunnery, 1976; Neal, 1980). Education as a public service is expected to be responsive to the needs of the public which it serves. There seems to be a tendency, however, for this service to be considered unresponsive or unable to meet the needs in the public sector (Keisling, 1983; New Jersey Education Association, 1982). Consequently the possibility of tax exemptions for private education and other legislated encouragement for private school education has been afoot and getting increased public and government support (New Jersey Education Association, 1982, 1983). One reason for this trend might be that the available funds budgeted to meet educational demands are perceived as inadequate. With this environment of perceived scarcity, the allocation of resources, academic freedom, self-governance, and other regulatory questions have become issues over which adversary relations have developed between teachers and school management personnel (Duryea, Fisk, & Assoc., 1973). Differential access to power over allocation of resources is an issue which involves the concept of status.

There are ascribed status differences between administrative or management personnel and teaching personnel which

might be construed as giving differential access to power (Blau, 1964; Burgess & Nielson, 1974; Chaney & Vinacke, 1960; Collins, 1971; Etzioni, 1970; Kanter, 1975, 1976) over allocation of resources including, but not limited to, hours, wages, terms, and conditions of employment (Duryea, Fisk, & Assoc., 1973; Kimbrough & Nunnery, 1976; Neal, 1980). Individual reactions to social power structures vary and may differ as a function of status and gender (Arday, 1978; Kanter, 1975, 1976; Keasey, 1971; Kelley & Stahelski, 1970; Krebs, 1970, 1975; Lawler, 1975; Michener & Suchner, 1972).

In order to function effectively within the social power structures, public employees have formed into unions and have gained increased benefits through the collective bargaining process. While collective bargaining practiced in public education helps protect the rights of the employees--where education is a mandated service that cannot go out of business--it can also create an economic situation in which the public views the service as too expensive. The value or social status of an employee might be perceived in economic terms (Adams, 1963). Employees are paid differently. School boards usually allocate higher salaries and benefits to administrators than to teachers. In socio-economic terms administrative/management personnel, therefore, have higher ascribed social status than teaching/non-administrative personnel. In terms of bargaining and the allocation of funds in education it also must be recognized that the operation of public education is regulated by federal, state,

and local laws that limit the areas in which responses can be made to employee demands. Politics and bureaucracy intervene in decision making and the profit motive is lacking.

While collective bargaining has been established in large measure to protect the educational employee and provide the necessary funds and environment in which to provide quality education, it is also a process necessitating skillful interaction between people chosen as representatives of a larger group to negotiate for that group. Successful negotiations are therefore dependent on the skills and behaviors of negotiators. An understanding of the process of interaction within the negotiation setting (as a conflict situation within a larger social system) is of crucial importance to provide for effective representation (Duryea, Fisk, & Assoc., 1973; Neal, 1980).

Recognition of the impact of educators as models of appropriate and acceptable behavior is also important in understanding the influence on future generations. The influence of educational experiences is that of a pervasive socializing agent. As such, values of those involved in education serve as operative or ideal models of acceptable and unacceptable behavior and role behavior. Though much behavior is predisposed by brain development and evolution of the human species, there is considerable evidence that life experience and relationships within the social system, moderate those predispositions (Charnov & Bull, 1977; Dorner, 1974; Dorner & Hinz, 1978;

Ehrhardt, 1974; Fox, Vito, & Wieland, 1978; Goy & McEwen, 1980; Kolata, 1979; McEwen, 1976). Individuals involved in teaching are a significant model for each generation. Changes in gender and role expectations and responses to status might well be reflected in the beliefs and behaviors of those being taught. In the United States exposure to education is mandatory for all children from five to sixteen years of age, therefore the impact of that exposure or experience is widespread. The behavior exhibited in conflict situations, such as bargaining, is a model for how conflicts are solved.

Research that addresses bargaining as simply a game involving two opponents in a conflict situation without regard for the larger social context of which the bargaining situation is a part is without consideration of the gain/loss motive affecting a person's life in a real situation (Bass, 1966; Black, Weinstein, & Tanur, 1974; Dressel & Midlarski, 1978; Druckman, 1967, 1968; Frey & Adams, 1972; Friedman & Jacka, 1969; Gouldner, 1960; Lamm & Kogan, 1970; Messe & Callahan, 1979; Morley & Stephenson, 1970). The social context and personal attributes of persons actively involved as negotiators are strong variables previously discounted in many studies (probably for the purpose of experimental control). While this action often makes the design clearer, it also serves to remove the research from significant aspects of the actual interaction process in a negotiation situation. In natural conflict situations, group representatives negotiate with others on behalf of the constituent groups of which

they are members. The situation necessitates responding in a manner that satisfies the person's role expectations in the representative group while continuing to satisfy status and role expectations as a representative within a constituency. A highly competitive response is dysfunctional in this conflict situation and is more likely to result in deadlocks.

Several studies suggest that adult males are predisposed, both biologically and through socialization, to competitive, exploitative, and less altruistic behavior while adult females are more likely to have developed cooperative and more altruistic behavior (Baker & Reitz, 1978; Benton, 1971, 1975; McNeel, McClintock, & Nutting, 1972; Rosenhan, 1970; Rotton, 1977; Staub, 1971, 1972; Vinacke, Mogy, Powers, Langon, & Beck, 1974; Wall, 1975; Walstedt, 1977). Literature was not available to show any gender differences in these variables that might develop contingent on social status.

Method of Investigation

The investigator gathered information through the use of two survey instruments: a Negotiation Survey (see Appendix B) and the Rokeach Value Survey¹ (see Appendix C). In order to investigate the possible interactions of gender differences the investigator gathered information about the value dispositions which might affect behavior of male and female negotiators and teachers in terms of the outcomes of negotiations in a collective bargaining situation. Males and females develop

¹Rokeach Value Survey--copyrighted survey purchased from Holgren Tests.

differently in a social system where men and women have historically been treated unequally and where many needs are met by socio-economic status levels (Maslow, 1968; Webb, 1981).

Data were collected from the chief school administrators (school superintendents) in the state of New Jersey by the Negotiation Survey, devised to collect information as to the gender of board and union negotiators and negotiating team members, average salaries (before negotiations and after the negotiated contract) number of meetings, total time from the beginning of bargaining to the completion of the contract, impasse or strike experience during the negotiations and the number of items proposed and finalized through negotiations. The data provided information regarding the outcomes of the negotiations and the gender of the negotiators. The data collected which related to terminal and instrumental values (Rokeach) were analyzed for any significant differences in the values of management negotiators, union negotiators and teachers (who are not negotiators) and in male and female interactions (see Chapter III). Independent variables that were considered include gender of the chief negotiators, the gender composition of negotiating teams (over 50% female or under 50% female), and the gender of non-negotiators (for the Value Survey only). The dependent variables examined include: salary increase differential between union negotiators and their constituency (by percentage of increase) after negotiations, the impasse/no impasse condition, the strike/no strike

condition, time from beginning of negotiations to completion of contract, the percent of agreements finalized of those proposed, and the values of the male and female negotiators and non-negotiators.

An ex post facto design was used to analyze the data. The data collected were analyzed to determine if there were any correlations between male and female interaction and number of agreements reached, number of meetings needed to complete contracts and total time to complete contracts, also for correlations with the occurrence of strike or impasse. The percent of salary increase was investigated in relation to the effects of male/female head negotiators and male/female composition of the negotiation teams to examine any gender difference in the negotiation teams and in conflict of interest. The terminal and instrumental values of male and female negotiators and non-negotiators were analyzed for differences and similarities by social status (head negotiator/negotiating team member/non-negotiator) and by gender (see Chapter III for more detailed information).

Limitations

The results of this investigation should indicate if men and women negotiated in a manner which resulted in different outcomes and if differences in values existed related to behavioral predispositions and ascribed social status. However, the specific reasons (i.e., how social status would change values, to what degree predisposed behavior is modified, how ascribed social status influences male/female behavior, why

males or females hold different value perspectives, etc.) for any differences may not be readily apparent. With the data analyzed and conclusions formulated we might be left with more questions to be investigated. The relations between the Negotiation Survey results and the Value Survey are speculative and highly inferential. They are suggested to encourage further study.

The difficulty in obtaining survey information and the relative homogeneity of the sample might inhibit generalizability of the results. This study may provide enough information to decide if further research is warranted and may suggest that basic gender differences are changing (both in terms of behavior and values). Because this study provides an initial attempt to integrate diverse fields of study, the research question is broadly investigated. Controls in the natural conflict setting are limited and numerous variables impinge on any strict causal statement (age, education, health, background, political climate, etc., are not controlled). The conclusions of this study do not necessarily apply to other states, countries, or areas of the world or educational populations. It does not necessarily apply to other negotiation settings. This study is exploratory in nature and was designed to illuminate interesting questions.

CHAPTER II REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Differences in behavior as a function of gender have been linked to biological predisposition, socialization, and social status. The consequent differences in bargaining orientation that might be expected provide the framework for an investigation of the effects of representative gender on negotiation outcomes. With regard to gender, contrasting hypotheses would be suggested from divergent perspectives on gender. One perspective conceptualizes gender as a personality variable, and the other links gender to social status in a stratified social system. Both of these conceptualizations can be considered in terms of beliefs about biological predisposition and its effects.

A review of literature relevant to gender differences as variables affecting contract negotiation outcomes revealed no studies done in natural settings. Experimental studies, using games and other simulated conflict situations, revealed some gender differences in the time necessary to reach agreement, cooperation and concern for equity, and the number of agreements reached (Benton, 1975; Kahn, Hottes, & Davis, 1971; McNeel, McClintock, & Nutting, 1972; Messe & Callahan, 1979; Wall, 1975, 1977; Walster, Bercheid, & Walster, 1973).

The evidence of considerable research in the field of biology leads one to believe that gender differences, whether

controlled by hormones, socialization, or some combination of these selectors for predisposition to certain behaviors, do exist and are exhibited in a variety of male and female behaviors (Adkins, 1976, 1977; Baker & Ehrhardt, 1974; Barley, Ginsburg, Greenstein, MacLusky, & Thomas, 1974; Beach, 1976; Bielert, 1978; Charnov & Bull, 1977; Davis, Porter, Burton, & Levine, 1976; Doerr, Pirke, Kockott, & Dittmar, 1976; Dornier, 1974; Ehrhardt, 1974; Globus, Rosenzweig, Bennett, & Cohen, 1959; Goldfoot & Wallen, 1978; Goy & Wallen, 1979; Hamburg, 1974; Joslyn, 1973; Kolata, 1979; Lowenthal, 1975; Manning, 1976; McCauley & Ehrhardt, 1976; McEwen, 1976; Money & Schwartz, 1977, 1978; Nottebohm & Arnold, 1976; Rossi, 1977a; Rowell, 1978; Shapiro, Goldman, Steinbeck, & Neumann, 1976; Ward, 1974; Washburn & Dolhinow, 1972; Whiting & Whiting, 1974). Investigations using a gaming or simulated conflict context suggest gender differences which support contentions from developmental literature (Bardwick & Douvan, 1971; Shapira & Madsen, 1969; Szal, 1972; Tedeschi, Hiester & Gahagan, 1969) that males are more competitive than females and females more cooperative than males. Studies using primarily children and college students support the developmental literature, based on biological sexual differences and socialization processes, in outcomes suggesting that females are more cooperative while males are more competitive. However, some evidence suggests that the competitive and aggressive predisposition attributed to hormones is actually an aggressive sexual response and therefore could differ as a function of the sex of the opposing person in any interaction (Rossi, 1977a).

In modern American culture, women, with more diverse roles, must be more flexible than men in juggling career, childrearing, and family life. Men have generally been able to focus on the primary function as breadwinner. Women, in facing more diverse functions, may have increased their competitive tendencies above those of men because they must divide their priorities, not as they did during hunting and gathering times by combining their childrearing and food producing activities, but in new sometimes conflicting ways (Rossi, 1977a). Inability to gauge the degree of increased competitiveness or any biologically based changes due to changes in the environment and interactions of modern American women, particularly women working outside the home, is a limitation of the present study as is the inability to gauge any hormonal changes in males as they interact with males or females, though it is recognized by the investigator that these types of changes may be affecting behavior.

Gender Differences: Social or Hormonal?

Rossi (1977a) combines both a social and a biological approach to the study of male and female behavior differences. Noting that the mammalian primate heritage is 65 million years old and that homo sapiens evolved only a comparatively short 40,000 years ago, she suggests that "Westernized human beings now living in a technological world are still genetically equipped with only an ancient mammalian primate heritage that evolved largely through adaptations appropriate to much earlier times" (Rossi, 1977a, p. 3).

A biosocial approach to the study of gender differences suggests that "biological contributions shape what is learned" (Rossi, 1977a, p. 4) and how easy or difficult it is to learn certain things. Anthropological research has shown that women in hunting and gathering societies almost everywhere contributed more than half of the basic food staples consumed in their society (Lee & DeVore, 1976). Reproductive success, and preservation of the human species, went to those females most capable of engaging simultaneously in two activities: the bearing and rearing of the young and the hunting and gathering of small game and food within a limited geographic range that was compatible with infant and child care (Rossi, 1977a). Both of these activities involved manual dexterity, physical and emotional stamina, and endurance. These are the skills which would be genetically selected for survival in the females of the species. On the other hand the selective process in males favored body stature, shoulder strength, and visual acuity as these were required for skill in big-game hunting with spears and for group defense (Tanner & Zihlman, 1976).

These selective adaptations can be seen to some extent among modern men and women. In general

men are taller and have greater shoulder strength and more precise spatial perception than women, while women generally show greater manual dexterity and emotional stamina. These are important points to be aware of when egalitarians argue against innate sex differences and assume that unisex education will remove whatever sex differences currently exist. It is probably unrealistic to

assume that a 50-50 distribution by sex in most human activities and occupations can be achieved in only a few generations. (Rossi, 1977a, pp. 4-5)

Other investigators disagree as to the effects of gender differences on behavior (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1980). While female hormones play a role in maternal behavior in lower animals, and the same may be true in human beings, they hold that there is no direct evidence of this. They contend that if there is a gender difference in the predisposition to nurturing behaviors, it does not necessarily generalize into a female tendency to behave altruistically over varying situations. The overall finding on altruism, according to these researchers, is one of sex similarity. They suggest that over the evolutionary time scale, "humans have become much less creatures of their hormones than are rats or rhesus monkeys" (Maccoby, cited in Gelman et al., 1981).

Current work in endocrinology and sex differences (Goy & McEwen, 1980; Money & Ehrhardt, 1980; Rossi, 1977a) holds that there is definitely an interaction between prenatal and postnatal determinants of psychosexual differentiation. There are many studies to support this contention (Goy & McEwen, 1980). What seems clear is that researchers do not have the information at this time to determine fully the effects of prenatal hormones relative to gender differences in the behavior of the human species and at least some prenatal determinations can be modified.

Biological Predispositions

D. McGuinness has suggested that

from infancy on, males and females respond in ways that provide significant clues to their later differences in behavior . . . infant girls are more alert to social cues, (in that) they respond more to people, read facial expressions better and seem better able to interpret the emotional content of speech even before they can understand words. . . . Infant boys are more curious about objects and like to take them apart . . . they are awake longer and are more active and exploratory. (She further reported that) girls have superior tactile sensitivity. . . . (McGuinness, cited in Gelman et al., 1981)

Other researchers (including R. Goy & W. Young, M. Hines, J. Money & A. Ehrhardt, K. Pribram, J. Reinisch, D. Symons, and M. Wolpoff, cited in Gelman et al., 1981) have reported findings that support the concept of biological predispositions in behavior. Still other researchers (Lewontin & Hrdy, and Toback, cited in Gelman et al., 1981) suggest that an individual's gender identity contributes more to social interactions and formation of gender differences, thus concluding that gender roles are not irreversibly determined by biology. These researchers suggest then that much that pertains to human gender identity differentiation must be accomplished after birth, in interaction with the social environment. This is illustrated by Money and Ehrhardt in an example: In the case of a sex-reassigned normal infant as a female after a traumatic injury to his genital organs, the child demonstrated significant female traits without hormonal treatment after genital reconstruction, change in name and

dress and parental treatment as a girl. This child had an identical twin, reared as a male. This study demonstrated the effects of rearing on shaping a child's psychosexual differentiation and the outcome of a female or male gender identity, regardless of genetic sex (Money & Ehrhardt, 1980).

Other such studies of biologically matched pairs of unique human subjects whose upbringing was differentiated by gender demonstrate the contribution of the postnatal phase of gender identity differentiation. The children in the studies (Money & Ehrhardt, 1980) grew up with successful gender identity of rearing despite hormonal gender identity that was different.

Research has been done to investigate the role of hormones over the life cycle of males and females (Lowenthal, 1975). This research has demonstrated that older women reportedly become more assertive and confident while older men display more nurturant qualities. Lowenthal theorizes that the increased hormonal differentiation of the sexes beginning in puberty and its lessening in the post-menopausal and post-climacteric years are more responsible for changed behaviors than socialization.

Evidence that there are specific times during prenatal development when hormones can effect change in future behavior patterns is clear in many studies using animals as subjects (Goy & McEwen, 1980). Research with human subjects provides more difficulty and the results are more ambiguous (Gorski, cited in Gelman et al., 1981; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1980; Money &

Ehrhardt, 1980; Reinisch, 1974; Rossi, 1977a). Shapiro's research as cited by Bielert, 1978, using rats, revealed that inherently the sexual differentiation (of rats) is female; only with the presence of male hormones will any male babies be produced. In monkeys, social dominance is influenced by hormones and behavioral differences between the sexes have been demonstrated to be a function of prenatal hormone exposure (Bielert, 1978). In human females prenatally exposed to high levels of male hormones, later behavior showed "significant tomboyism," thought to be a sequel to "masculinizing of the fetal brain." It was suggested that the masculinization may affect pathways of the brain that mediate the assertion of dominant behavior (such as assertion of exploratory and territorial rights) and may show itself in competitive energy (Money & Ehrhardt, 1980). The effects of male hormones on aggressive behavior have been documented (Goy & McEwen, 1980) primarily by animal studies though some studies of humans are available and suggest similar results (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1980; Money & Ehrhardt, 1980; Money & Tucker, 1975; Reinisch, 1974).

While researchers agree that gender differences in behavior are controlled by a combination of genetic, hormonal, and external environmental factors, some investigations have pointed to specific periods of prenatal development in which hormones have a critical function in effecting changes in the ways in which an individual is predisposed to behave. Results of investigations suggest that a specified protein

of the neonatal brain is involved in the sexual differentiation of the nervous system (Barley, Ginsburg, Greenstein, MacLusky, & Thomas, 1974; Bielert, 1978; Goldfoot & Wallen, 1978). There is some evidence that hormones change the structure of the brain, thus suggesting sexual differentiation of the brain itself (Adkins, 1977; Charnov & Bull, 1977; Davis, Porter, Burton, & Levine, 1976; Dorner, 1974; Dorner & Hinz, 1978; Fox, Vito, & Wieland, 1978; Shapiro, Goldman, Steinbeck, & Neumann, 1976). It is, however, unclear how closely the results of these investigations will apply to differentiation of the human brain.

In humans, the best evidence is indirect. For years researchers have known that men's and women's mental functions are organized somewhat differently. Men appear to have more laterality--that is, their functions are separately controlled by the left or right hemisphere of the brain, while women's seem diffused through both hemispheres. (Gelman et al., 1981, p. 78)

Goldfoot and Wallen theorized that social experiences encourage or inhibit specific behavioral patterns thus contributing to the establishment of specific gender roles. They also suggested that subtle social factors, such as sex composition of the peer group, operate to determine what gender profiles will eventually emerge (Goldfoot & Wallen, 1978). This and other studies suggest that while hormones predispose the learning of a particular social role, "the hormone does not prevent behavior from being modified by environmental and social conditions" (Goy, cited in Gelman et al., 1981, p. 78).

It has become more and more recognized by researchers that, "for people as well as animals, biology, and culture continually interact. The differences between men and women have been narrowing over evolutionary time" (Gelman et al., 1981, p. 83) and that gap continues to diminish. The specific changes and social differences they will effect in work, family, and other areas of social life are fertile areas for investigation.

In terms of planning social change or responding adequately to change as it occurs it could be beneficial to look at the investigations of gender differences in specific areas. For the purposes of this study those areas include gender differences in altruism, in competitive vs. cooperative predisposition to behavior, and in role relationships where power or status is a factor.

Gender Differences in Altruism

Comprehensive studies of altruism note the importance of this trait on three distinct levels: (a) as a behavior that constituted a central goal of early socialization, (b) as a personality attribute, and (c) as an apparent aspect of general human behavior, even though one would expect egoism to be a dominant trait over altruism. For the purposes of this investigation and the discussion of altruism, an altruistic act is defined as (a) an end in itself, not directed at gain, (b) done voluntarily, and (c) doing good (Krebs, 1970, 1975).

Krebs discussed the specific kinds of situations that elicit altruistic responses, and notes that many altruistic responses result from an interaction between the characteristics of benefactors and recipients, rather than from the characteristics of benefactors and recipients alone. This is an important concept in terms of negotiations, where interaction between bargainers is continuous. In modeling studies, almost all recipients of altruism were dependent, and their dependency probably interacted to elicit altruistic behavior.

Personality traits of altruistic persons, benefactors, were also discussed (Krebs, 1970, 1975). In general, no conclusions could be drawn about altruism as a personality trait, although it seemed that altruistic children were better adjusted socially than others: less quarrelsome, aggressive, and competitive, and more emotionally stable. College-age female altruists were found to be socially oriented, nurturant persons with low needs for achievement and dominance. College-age male altruists tended to be socially oriented, and also tended to think they controlled their fates.

Krebs noted that most studies on adults have failed to find sex differences in altruism, although some experiments show that adult males were less prone to help highly dependent others (versus others of low dependency) especially when their status was threatened. Females were more prone to help those who were highly dependent. Females apparently either did not

perceive, or did not respond to dependence as a threat to status. In relation to status it was reported that members of the working class and entrepreneurial middle class (both sexes) tended to behave in accordance with the norms of reciprocity, while the behavior of bureaucratic middle class persons (both sexes) was considered to be of a more socially responsible nature.

An interesting theory on altruism and women is offered by one investigator, the "altruistic other orientation." This theory holds that women have a life-long, culturally-based orientation toward self-sacrifice, and a generalized predisposition that puts men ahead continuously. Acceptance of this altruistic orientation by women means that an appreciable degree of autonomy is relinquished at the expense of the developing female personality. Therefore, many qualities termed feminine by psychologists can be viewed as the basis for the development of the altruistic other orientation. Walstedt's study of 106 women over the age of 34 revealed that women who did not accept the altruistic other orientation were more likely to be self-supporting in their middle years and to have attained more academic degrees (Walstedt, 1977).

Overall research on gender differences in altruism shows mixed and sometimes contradictory results. Some studies using a game as a conflict situation have shown females to be more competitive opponents, and at the same time, more cooperative in their willingness to work together with a partner

to win (Grant & Sermat, 1969). Some studies analyze the effects of rearing conditions of children on their subsequent altruism (Yarrow, Scott & Waxler, 1973). Findings of these studies show that there are some effects of increased parental nurturance on increased altruism, and that if girls are treated in a more nurturant manner by their parents they will, in turn, grow up to be more altruistic themselves. Putting this in perspective, other studies of altruism suggest that observing others in a helping manner will elicit helping responses from children of either gender. Thus, children must have a "socializing agent" who shows helpfulness by example. Women are generally regarded as more helpful role models for girls to emulate, and therefore contribute to increased altruistic behavior among girls and women (Bryan, 1972). If this is accurate and women are changing to become more competitive, then some consideration of what new socialization processes will be taking place would seem appropriate. If females are more altruistic and the results of investigations are mixed, then they might be expected to exhibit more cooperative behavior when interacting with others.

Gender Differences in Negotiations:
Cooperation vs. Competition

Investigators used the Prisoner's Dilemma game, which is characterized by a conflict in the joint gain available and the individual gain available to players, to demonstrate social interactions of cooperators and competitors. They found that when cooperative and competitive persons interact, a number of behaviors occur. First, the cooperator tends to behave like

the competitor; because of this, the competitor misjudges the cooperator, taking him/her to be competitive. "The cooperator, but not the competitor, is aware of the latter's dominant role in their relationship" (Kelley & Stahelski, 1970, p. 66).

Kelley and Stahelski therefore concluded that cooperators and competitors will have different beliefs about what others are like in regard to cooperativeness and competitiveness. They infer that "cooperators will believe others are heterogeneous as to cooperativeness vs. competitiveness, whereas competitors believe others are uniformly competitive" (Kelley & Stahelski, 1970, p. 66). In addition, they concluded that "low authoritarians tend to behave like cooperators in experimental game-situations and to have beliefs similar to (those of) cooperators," (Kelley & Stahelski, 1970, p. 66) while high authoritarians behave as competitors and hold values similar to those of competitors.

These two personality types, cooperative and competitive, would then appear to hold different views of their worlds, and this is accounted for by their differing social interactions. It appears that people affect their social worlds so that what they react to is determined partly by their own behavior, or their personal predispositions. Because some people fail to discount their causal role in their social relationships, a distorted view of the social environment results. Thus, competitive members of cooperative/competitive pairs may misjudge goals of their partners, taking them to

have competitive rather than cooperative goals. The cooperator is aware of this and generally alters behavior to a more competitive stance as a defensive measure. The competitor, on the other hand, seems unaware of the greater influence he/she exhibits in the relationship. Interestingly, when cooperators interact with other cooperators, they are perceived as cooperators and act as such.

The research suggests that cooperators would be more eager than competitors to obtain information about potential partners since they expect more variability in the people they meet. Cooperators' ability to hold heterogeneous beliefs about others may lead them to offer "rewards" in interrelationships which include the negotiation relationship. In relationships, the authors hypothesize that there is a correlation between high authoritarianism and competitiveness and between low authoritarianism and cooperativeness. Thus, if one hypothesizes that women are more altruistic and more cooperative, they are also likely to be more perceptive than male counterparts in negotiations, while males, who are assumed to be more competitive, are likely to be more authoritarian and less likely to recognize heterogeneity in others.

Some researchers conducted 100 trials of a two-choice mixed motive game using male, female, and mixed-sex dyads. Their results showed that, while females were consistently less relative-gain oriented than males, the difference was not significant. Therefore, the hypothesis that females are more individualistically oriented than males was not supported (McNeel, McClintock, & Nuttin, 1972).

In mixed-sex dyads, it was hypothesized that all subjects would show a decreased tendency to compete compared to like-sex dyads, and the results bore this out. However, like-sex female dyads were not significantly less competitive than males, and all subjects became more competitive as the trials progressed. In analyzing the question of how playing the game with members of the opposite sex modified a person's response tendencies, it was discovered that gender of the other did not have a significant effect on the choice proportions of females, while the effect was strong with males.

Thus, the researchers concluded that although mixed-sex dyads were significantly less competitive than like-sex groups, this was due primarily to two factors: (a) the markedly less competitive behavior of males in mixed-sex dyads rather than females, and (b) even for males, there was no general tendency to reduce competitiveness when interacting with a female. It was noted, however, that females seemed more unwilling than males to "lose" to an opposite sex partner. Reasons for this phenomenon were not suggested.

In a later study by McClintock, Messick, Kuhlman, and Campos (1973), mixed-sex dyads were used in decomposed games. Four choices were assumed available in the selection of moves: individual (own gain), competitive (relative gain), cooperation (joint gain), or aggression (minimization of others' gain). In all groups, own, relative, and joint gain maximization tendencies influenced the subjects' choices, while no evidence was found to support the notion that the

subjects tried to minimize payoffs to others. Females were reported to be about 10 percent more gain-oriented than males (McClintock, Messick, Kuhlman, & Campos, 1973).

Some research, however, is contrary to the above findings. Kahn found that choices of male subjects were relatively uninfluenced by the sex of the partner, while females appeared to be more influenced by the interpersonal nature of the Prisoner's Dilemma game situations than by strategic considerations (Kahn, Hottes, & Davis, 1971).

In another study of negotiations (Tracy, 1974) the influence of non-economic factors on bargaining is investigated. The non-economic variables investigated included

- (a) favorable recognition (from either side),
- (b) unfavorable recognition (from either side),
- (c) perceived achievement,
- (d) responsibility,
- (e) nature of the work itself,
- (f) personal growth and possible advancement,
- (g) team policy and administration,
- (h) interpersonal relations with teammates,
- (i) working conditions,
- (j) pattern of relationships between persons,
- (k) effort involved in the negotiations,
- (l) mental stress, and
- (m) perceived equitability of the new contract.

The researchers found that only six of the non-economic factors were significantly related to a negotiator's personal

inclination to settle for a new contract:

- (a) perceived equitability of the contract,
- (b) perceived achievement,
- (c) pattern of relationships between persons,
- (d) nature of the work itself,
- (e) favorable recognition, and
- (f) team policy and administration.

No relationship was shown for the other seven factors.

While the relationships in this study were not particularly strong (no single factor accounted for more than 15 percent of the variance in negotiators' inclinations toward settlement), it was suggested that the importance of non-economic factors should not be overlooked when considering the negotiations process.

In other research designed to predict cooperation from the two sexes in a conflict simulation (Pilisuk, Skolnick, & Overstreet, 1968), the results showed no overall differences in cooperation rates between males and females. However, females were found to be less accurate in predicting others' behavior and less sensitive to the other player's strategy. Other studies involving cooperation between sexes showed females either to be more cooperative (Benton, 1973; Hales & Fennner 1973; Walstedt, 1977) or males to be more cooperative (Oskamp & Perlman, 1965). Some investigators reported that in mixed pairs, the sexes cooperated evenly, with women increasing their normal cooperation rates and men decreasing theirs. They concluded that there is some evidence that both men and women are more prone to cooperate against the opposite sex (Rapoport & Chamnah, 1965).

Other investigators (Amidjaja & Vinacke, 1965) studied bargaining behavior and coalition-formation in mixed three person groups which consisted of one person high in achievement but low in nurturance, another person high in nurturance but low in achievement, and a third partner who was intermediate in both areas. They found that subjects high in achievement tended to be the most active in forming coalitions, while those high in nurturance tended to receive offers to ally rather than initiating them.

Males, it was demonstrated, displayed a pattern of "ruthless, cutthroat competition, with a strong orientation towards winning. Females more often showed concern for fairness, equalization of outcomes and more orientation toward the social interaction aspects of the experiment" (Amidjaja & Vinacke, 1965, p. 447).

Research into sex differences in negotiations between groups underlined the influences of situational factors in eliciting different patterns of bargaining behavior from males and females (Benton, 1975). The pairs of males bargained more competitively than did the females when there was peer surveillance. On the other hand, without peer surveillance, negotiations on behalf of groups between females involved more offers, higher rejection rates, and more competitive offers than did those between males (Benton, 1975). This finding would not support the belief that females are more sensitive and responsive to other people than are males, but would support the belief that role expectations might

affect negotiations. The female representatives indicated that they felt their constituents expected them to behave more cooperatively during the negotiations and would be satisfied with less in the negotiations; when these constituents were absent, females behaved more competitively than instructed by their constituents.

Research into constituent trust revealed some interesting effects of trust upon representatives' bargaining behavior, opposing representatives' bargaining behavior, and the numbers of agreements reached in bargaining situations (Wall, 1975).

Initial constituent distrust of the bargaining representative for one's team fostered fewer agreements and more competitive bargaining. A competitive bargaining orientation (vs. a cooperative orientation) fostered more competitive representative bargaining.

In an all-male group of volunteers (120 subjects) constituents' initial distrust of their own representative triggered mutually reinforcing competition between the bargaining representative and the opposing representative. The distrusted representative issued higher opening demands, and the opposing team retaliated by granting less concessions than to a more trusted representative. As constituent trust increased, the competition was reinforced rather than reduced (Wall, 1975). Reasons for this phenomenon were not fully clarified.

It is suggested then that constituent distrust had a dual effect: it created an initial competitive orientation by

the representative who was distrusted and it put him in such a defense posture that when trust increased the representative responded by increasing his competitive demands. Feedback concerning bargaining success (agreement vs. deadlock) had a less powerful effect than hypothesized. The greater competition fostered by the initial distrust continued to lead to deadlocks, although it increased the trust of the constituents in their representative.

This information about the effects of constituent trust suggests that the person who attains the role of a representative might need to be able to tolerate a high degree of ambiguity in relationships as well as have developed sensitivity to the needs of others. Strong concern for power and adherence to competitive bargaining could result in continuous deadlock, thus loss of time and reduction in the ability to respond effectively.

Where older experimental studies show mixed results as to levels of cooperation, competition, and altruism present in male/female game situations, the evidence pointed to a greater degree of altruism and cooperation among females and greater competition among males. Newer studies appear to be pointing out the effects of more outside variables and the complexity of the relationships.

Specific to the negotiation situation one investigator suggested that the ability of one person to win a concession from the other is influenced by that person's ability to reward or punish the opponent (Mabry, 1965). If bargaining

is the negotiation which takes place over the terms of an agreement, the relative power, or influence, and skills of one negotiator over another is an issue of certain importance. If gender predisposes the development of specific skills or strategies, then the gender of the negotiator and the opposing negotiator would be an important variable in determining negotiation outcomes as well as the type of interaction in the process itself.

Current research into negotiating indicates that there are two strategies often seen in positional bargaining: soft and hard (Fisher & Ury, 1982). The soft negotiator emphasizes the importance of building and maintaining a relationship, and this makes him/her vulnerable to someone who plays a hard positional bargaining game. The hard bargainer always dominates the soft negotiator. If the hard bargainer insists on concessions and makes threats while the soft bargainer yields in order to avoid confrontation, the negotiations are biased in favor of the hard bargainer.

However, the authors propose a third bargaining strategy: principled bargaining, designed to produce "wise" outcomes efficiently and amicably. Principled bargaining involves four points:

- (a) people--separate the people from the problem,
- (b) interests--focus on interests, not positions,
- (c) options--generate a variety of possibilities before deciding what to do,
- (d) criteria--insist that the result be based on some objective standard.

The authors suggest that in contrast to positional bargaining (cooperative or soft vs. competitive or hard) principled negotiations lead to a gradual consensus on a joint decision without rancor (Fisher & Ury, 1982).

Table 1 illustrates the differences between hard, soft and principled bargaining. The category of negotiator into which women generally fall is not discussed. However, if females are generally cooperative, concerned with equity, and altruistic, then it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that the principled strategies might be those which females would be most predisposed to learn.

Gender Differences in Negotiations:
Power and Dependence

The relationship between dependence and power is being addressed in regard to the question of whether or not women view themselves as less effective and more dependent and, therefore, might be less inclined to adequately represent others in the negotiation process. Power in a relationship is the ability to affect social activities in the face of resistance (Olsen, 1970). Such social activities include the quality of life available to a person, the nature of social interaction, and emotional, intellectual, and perceptual processes (Olsen, 1970).

The ability to affect social activities (power) is derived from a person's access to resources which are desired by others, and is based on the person's position (status) in a social group (Etzioni, 1970). Resistance can also take a variety of forms. For example, a person can use power to

Table 1. Characteristics of Negotiators' Bargaining Strategies.

<u>Hard</u>	<u>Soft</u>	<u>Principled</u>
Participants are adversaries	Participants are friends	Participants are problem-solvers
The goal is victory	The goal is agreement	The goal is a wise outcome reached efficiently and amicably
Demand concessions as a condition of the relationship	Make concessions to cultivate the relationship	Separate the people from the problem
Be hard on the problem and the people	Be soft on the people and the problem	Be soft on the people, hard on the problem
Distrust others	Trust others	Proceed independent of trust
Dig into your position	Change your position easily	Focus on interests, not position
Make threats	Make offers	Explore interests
Mislead as to your bottom line	Disclose your bottom line	Avoid having a bottom line
Accept one-sided gains as the price of an agreement	Accept one-sided losses to reach agreement	Invent options for mutual gain
Search for the single answer: the one <u>you</u> will accept	Search for the single answer: the one <u>they</u> will accept	Develop multiple options to choose from: decide later
Insist on your position	Insist on agreement	Insist on objective criteria
Try to win a contest of will	Try to avoid a contest of will	Try to reach a result based on standards independent of will
Apply pressure	Yield to pressure	Reason and be open to reasons; yield to principle, not pressure

(Fisher & Ury, 1982)

overcome a possible withdrawal from an interaction, the withholding of support for activities, or an actual challenge to the distribution of power (Olsen, 1970). This definition of social power supports the contention that to have power over another means that the person can affect the other's attainment of reward, the other's behavior, and the other's internal experience without the consent of the person being affected. This issue of the person's consent will distinguish power from influence, influence then being an individual's ability in persuasion and negotiation. In that sense, influence over another will imply voluntary consent of the person being influenced. On the other hand, power over another does not require voluntary consent, because it is not based on interpersonal skill, but on a person's position in a social relationship alternate to another person's position (Thomas, Franks, & Calconico, 1972). Therefore, power is derived from a person's position in a social structure and influence is based on the person's interpersonal skills. Power can increase influence, but it is not necessary for influence to occur.

Investigations of the impact of power appear traditionally to have been undertaken on two levels: power in society and power in interpersonal relationships. Some understanding of both levels is useful when considering gender differences in behavior and possible effects on negotiation outcomes. Social exchange theory is a perspective that bridges the gap between the two perspectives on power (Blau, 1964). Social

exchange theory considers power to underlie all social interaction. The significance of power in social interaction is created by the dependence of human beings on each other for the fulfillment of physical and social needs (Maslow, 1968). Because people cannot fulfill their needs independently of each other, they are in a position to be influenced by others; this may be considered important when in a position to represent others. The greater the dependence on a social relationship, the greater will be the person's vulnerability to having their behavior and experiences affected by others in the relationship. When negotiators are chosen to represent others they are given power (in relation to their constituents whom they represent) and a certain degree of relative social status.

Social systems develop from interdependent social relationships, but once the social systems are established, socialization and stratification can establish differences between people in power and dependence. This stratification will affect the alternatives that individuals have for attaining the goals they desire and power-dependence relationships that they have in interpersonal relations. Power and dependence in relationships can be modified by change in available alternatives through which to meet individual needs. If significant change is being made in the relationships of women and men in society, then changes can be expected in power-dependence, that is in social status and access to alternatives. Change can then be expected in the behaviors in which

men and women engage in relation to one another. In the unequal relationship shared in the past (delineated by gender) there was a greater discrepancy between behaviors than in the more equal relationships that are developing. The more dependent or less powerful person had more to lose if the relationship was impaired (and women were usually the more dependent persons) due to the concern for maintaining the good will of the other, less dependent, person (Rubin & Brown, 1975).

However, the more dependent person, in contrast to the less dependent person, would have needed to have developed more sensitivity to others, and should be accustomed to more carefully monitoring behavior to avoid offending or angering the more powerful person in the relationship. In an unequal power-dependent relationship then, the more dependent person would need to be more adept at interpersonal skills than the less dependent person (Thomas, Franks, & Calconico, 1972; Rubin & Brown, 1975). This information suggests the possibility that women may have had to develop more carefully their interpersonal skills.

In contrast, in an equal power-dependent relationship, the persons should be similarly concerned with synchronizing their behavior toward one another. They will be more likely to express problems openly and to interact on an equal basis. Looking at a brief historical example suggests that men have been able to interact more as equals while women were maintained as more dependent: although the majority of educators

have been and continue to be females (Andrews, 1983)¹ the evolution of teachers to other than "quiescent, modest and meek. . . ." (Donley, 1976, p. 112) indicates that assertive or aggressive behavior, when tolerated, was evidenced by males, e.g., 1966, Cheever, 1790, C. Bingham, and 1802, T. Peugh.² Teachers "were expected to act like servants . . . this servant status began to change only when teachers began to organize" (Donley, 1976, p. 112).

It was noted elsewhere in this paper that there appear to have been gender differences even in the impetus to organize. The significance of this theory of power dependence on investigations of the effects of bargaining behavior and decision-making is to point out the significance of the relative status of males and females in the position of negotiator. In a society where women are moving from a historically dependent tradition in relationships to a more equal role in relationships, women would historically have had to develop more sensitivity to others and be more adept at interpersonal skills due to the dependent nature of their status. At the present time, however, this differential power relationship

¹Personal communication.

²In 1666 E. Cheever of Charlestown, Massachusetts had not been paid his salary on schedule, his school building was in poor condition, and some of his pupils had gone to attend school in nearby towns. When he spoke out at a town meeting he was told the repairs would be made, his salary paid and in addition "no other schoolmaster would be suffered or set up in the town" (Donley, 1976, p. 112). C. Bingham was paid for his teaching in a town script which was discounted when redeemed at a bank. He advertised it in the newspaper, then refused to apologize and was then paid on time and in cash. T. Peugh refused to have classes until he was given "at least one afternoon per month off" (Donley, 1976, p. 112).

between men and women appears to be decreasing as the social and vocational alternatives open to women become greater in number. Unfortunately, that may mean that in equal relationships persons will be less sensitive rather than both being more sensitive as it appears to be the traditional male role model that is being adapted (Rossi, 1977a).

Since historically women have been more dependent and consequently more people-oriented, have had to work at developing a variety of options in making decisions, and have had to be sensitive in interrelationships and in interpersonal skills, they are more likely to be more principled negotiators since these characteristics are needed to function in that manner effectively (see Table 1, Characteristics of Negotiators: Principled).

Summary

One explanation of gender differences implies that behavioral differences between males and females are based on gender-related attributes: personality, attitudes, and other biological structures. The central concern in this study is in identifying differences in male-female behavior, values, and negotiation outcomes. The status explanation of gender differences looks at the process through which gender differences and behavior patterns have occurred, and from this standpoint, gender differences would be the result of differential placement in the social system, rather than simply differences in the individual, and that hypothesis has been used as a basis for assigning people to unequal positions in a social system. Another possible explanation of gender

differences involves an interaction of development (biology) and status (environment).

Looking at the women's movement, any basis for gender differences would be undergoing change. If it is true, then there should be less and less difference between male and female behavior, because the access to social position would be more equal and the power in social relationships would be more equal (Gillespie, 1971; Kanter, 1975, 1976, 1977; Thomas, Franks, & Calconico, 1972). Biologically based changes (brain differentiation, variation in patterns of hormone excretion, etc) would also be expected (Rossi, 1977a) though not immediately apparent. Biologically determined gender differences may lead to predispositions to different behaviors. However, there is evidence that as women gain social position and power and interactions between males and females change, gender differences are less noted and/or of less importance. There is also evidence that over time the reduction in differences in role demands as a function of gender will effect biological changes in males and females.

The review of literature suggests that while gender differences do exist in a variety of areas including predispositions to learning, development of altruistic and cooperative vs. individualistic and competitive interaction styles, access to power and position, and the consequent development of values, there is limited information about the effects of these differences in the conflict situations of collective

bargaining. The influence of these variables (if any) on negotiation outcomes is the subject of this study.

There are many dynamics involved in negotiating including status, power, trust, and possibly the gender of the negotiator. If women do negotiate differently than men because of a different value system, different status in the bargaining group, or different approach to the bargaining process, those differences should be apparent in the results of this study. The specific reasons associated with the differences would have to be the topic of future study.

CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURE

Population and Sample

This investigation was conducted in New Jersey during the 1981-82 school year. The population from which the sample was drawn included teachers, individuals who were negotiators for school boards, and individuals who were negotiators for the union. Salient characteristics of the population included that the actual negotiators represented the negotiator population, actual teachers represented the non-negotiator population, the N.J.E.A., a branch of the N.E.A., was the controlling union in the state of New Jersey, and the population sampled was in New Jersey.

In relation to the bargaining context it is significant to note that New Jersey is a state with a strong educational union. In some districts even though union membership is not required, support in dues is required. There are many state limitations on what can be negotiated.¹ It is neither a right to work state nor do sunshine laws apply. The Supreme Court of New Jersey provided a general definition of required negotiation topics:

¹Ridgefield Park Education Association vs. Ridgefield Park Board of Education, 1978. There are only two categories of negotiations: mandatorily negotiated terms and conditions of employment, and non-negotiable items of governmental policy. See Appendix E for lists.

Thus, negotiable terms and conditions of employment are those matters which intimately and directly affect the work and welfare of public employees and on which negotiated agreement would not significantly interfere with the exercise of inherent management prerogatives pertaining to the determination of governmental policy.

The exact meaning of this sentence will be determined on a case by case basis by PERC and the courts. A literal reading, however, implies that the exercise of management prerogatives by public employers may not be frustrated by the obligation to negotiate. It is conceivable that certain matters, although traditionally considered terms and conditions of employment, will be deemed illegal in some situations. Related clauses would then be ruled unenforceable, if a negotiated agreement on them "would significantly interfere with the exercise of inherent management prerogatives pertaining to the determination of governmental policy. (N.J. School Boards Assoc., 1979, p. 8)

Illegal clauses are not considered binding even if included in a contract (Ridgefield Park Decision in N.J. School Boards Assoc., 1979).

Method

The Negotiations Survey

A two way analysis of variance was used for the negotiations data. The independent variables were gender of the chief negotiators for the board and union and gender composition of the negotiation teams (over 50% female = a female team designation, under 50% female - a male team designation). The dependent variables included the number of meetings to complete the contract, impasse or no impasse, strike or no strike, total time from beginning of negotiations to the end, the percentage of agreements completed, and salary increase differentials between negotiators and non-negotiators (conflict of interest).

Values Survey

A general linear models procedure was used for analysis of the terminal and instrumental values data. The independent variables were gender and status (with status defined as group membership, management negotiator/ union negotiator/ non-negotiator). The dependent variables included 36 discrete values, eighteen defined as terminal values and eighteen as instrumental values. The results of these analyses are reported in Chapter IV.

Procedure

The question posed: are there gender differences that will be reflected in values that influence negotiator interaction and collective bargaining outcomes? was answered by the following procedure.

- A. A Negotiation Survey (see Appendix B) was devised and sent to 600 New Jersey school district superintendents to obtain data including;
 1. the number and sex of the board negotiators,
 2. the sex of the head board negotiator,
 3. the number and sex of the union negotiators,
 4. the sex of the head union negotiator,
 5. the salary of each union negotiator before negotiations and after negotiations,
 6. the average teacher's salary before negotiations and after negotiations,
 7. the number of meetings required to settle the contract,
 8. the time, from start to finish, of negotiations,
 9. impasse/no impasse, strike/no strike,

10. the number of items to be negotiated, and
 11. the number of items on which agreement was reached.
- B. A Values Survey (see Appendix C) was sent to 34 districts to collect value information about the management negotiators, the union negotiators, and the non-negotiators.

The Negotiations Survey was mailed to each superintendent (or administrative principal in districts with no superintendent because of his/her position as chief administrative officer reporting to the School Board). A letter (see Appendix D) accompanied the survey stating that the data were needed for a doctoral study and requesting help by filling in the requested information. A stamped self-addressed envelope was included to encourage returns. It was decided in advance that a 30% return rate would be acceptable for analysis as a representative sample. Three hundred and six Negotiations Surveys with return stamped envelopes were sent out a second time to districts that had not returned them but said they would try to get the data. Of the 600 total districts, 21 of the 27 surveys sent to female superintendents or administrative principals (78%) were returned and 198 of the 573 sent to male superintendents of administrative principals (35%) were returned. A total of 219 (37%) were returned.

Two hundred nineteen (219) Negotiations Surveys were separated into four categories:

- (a) Female Board vs. Female Union,
- (b) Female Board vs. Male Union,
- (c) Male Board vs. Female Union, and

(d) Male Board vs. Male Union.

From these categories 34 districts were chosen from which to request values information. Two copies of the Rokeach Value Survey (see Appendix C) were sent to each of those 34 districts with a request that one copy be completed by the union negotiator and one by the school board negotiator and that the negotiators identify themselves clearly as male or female and representatives of management or of the union. Teachers were also sampled in order to make a comparison of individuals who did not negotiate with those who were in a position to negotiate for others. An additional 30 Value Surveys were sent to randomly selected districts with the request that a teacher (non-negotiator) be selected by the superintendent at random to complete the survey and return it in the stamped self-addressed envelope. It was decided in advance that a 30% return of any of the 98 surveys would be adequate to use for analysis. (The actual returns were 41%). A total of 39 usable surveys were returned. The 39 returns gave the following individual representations: 6 Female Management Negotiators, 12 Male Management Negotiators, 5 Male Union Negotiators, and 5 Male Non-Negotiators.

The independent variables were coded by Management Negotiators/Union Negotiators/Non-negotiator and by Male/Female and were analyzed. The purpose of the analysis was to compare the values of the management negotiators, union negotiators, and non-negotiators (teachers) by status and gender.

Analysis for gender and status differences in terminal and instrumental values reported by board negotiators, union negotiators, and non-negotiators was performed for the Values Survey using the General Linear Models Procedure of the Statistical Analysis System.

In summary, two instruments were used to obtain data about the outcomes of negotiations and the values of management negotiators, union negotiators, and non-negotiators in the state of New Jersey. The Negotiations Survey was used to obtain data about specific dependent variables including the salary of each union negotiator before and after negotiations, the average teacher's salary before and after negotiations, the number of meetings required to settle the contract, the total time needed to complete negotiations, the occurrence of an impasse or strike, and the number of items on which agreement was reached. The Negotiations Survey also was used to obtain data about the independent variables, the gender of the board negotiators and the union negotiators. A two way ANOVA was used to analyze the data.

The Value Survey was used to obtain information about the relative importance of the dependent variables (18 terminal and 18 instrumental values) to individuals who were in the position of management negotiator, union negotiator, or non-negotiator. A general linear models procedure was used to analyze the data for differences in values as a function of the independent variable gender. The general linear models procedure was also used to analyze the values

data for differences as a function of negotiator position (status).

The Negotiations Survey and Values Survey were used to obtain information about values and negotiation outcomes from the same population. Some attempt is made (see Chapter IV) to suggest possible rational connections between the data obtained. It is important to note that any relationships suggested between values and negotiations outcomes are speculations. In terms of the results of this investigation no causal statement is possible. The purpose is to suggest where fertile ground for future investigation lies.

CHAPTER IV RESULTS

Data regarding the dependent variables conflict of interest (as measured by percent increase salary differentials), the impasse or no impasse condition, the strike or no strike condition, the number of times met to complete a contract, the total time in days of contract negotiations, the percent of agreements completed of those proposed, and 36 terminal and instrumental values were analyzed with regard to male-female differences in three status positions: school board negotiator, union negotiator, and non-negotiator. The analysis was designed to investigate whether there were gender differences that were reflected in values that influenced negotiator interaction and collective bargaining outcomes. The alpha level for rejection of the null hypothesis was set at .05 throughout the study.

Negotiations Survey

The results of the Negotiations Survey are presented in the order in which the questions are asked.

1. Were gender differences reflected in the reported impasse situations during negotiations? The percentage of impasse was different for male-female composition of teams. There was no difference for gender of head negotiators and no significant interaction.

Table 2. Team Composition and Reported Percent of Impasse.

<u>Board Team</u>	<u>Union Team</u>	<u>% of Impasse</u>
Male	Male	38
Male	Female	41
Female	Male	67
Female	Female	31

There was a difference in the impasse situation as a function of the male-female composition of the opposing teams.

2. Were gender differences reflected in the number of meetings necessary to negotiate a contract? There was no difference in the number of times teams met during negotiations as a function of team composition or gender of opposing head negotiators.

3. Were gender differences reflected in the total time in days required to complete contract negotiations? There was a two way interaction for total time required to complete contract negotiations as a function of gender composition of opposing head negotiators and gender composition of opposing teams. The opposing teams with female board representatives and male union representatives took the most time to complete negotiations.

Table 3. Gender Composition of Opposing Teams and Total Time in Days Necessary to Complete Contract Negotiations.

<u>Board</u>	<u>Union</u>	<u>Average # of Days</u>
Male	Male	227
Male	Female	190
Female	Male	250
Female	Female	228

For opposing head negotiators, however the female board representatives opposing male union representatives took the least time to complete negotiations.

Table 4. Gender Composition of Opposing Head Negotiators and Total Time in Days Necessary to Complete Contract Negotiations.

<u>Board</u>	<u>Union</u>	<u>Average # of Days</u>
Male	Male	214
Male	Female	221
Female	Male	204
Female	Female	248

The absence of females in certain cells makes it difficult to attempt any generalization of these results. It should be noted that it is a reflection of the absence of females in these positions in the real population.

Table 5. Representative Population and \bar{X} Total Days to Complete Contract Negotiations.

<u>Team Composition</u>	<u>Mm-Mu # Days</u>	<u>Head Negotiators</u>		
		<u>Mm-Fu # Days</u>	<u>Fm-Mu # Days</u>	<u>Fm-Fu # Days</u>
Mm-Mu	214	372	-	-
Mm-Fu	195	182	-	-
Fm-Mu	247	183	192	-
Fm-Fu	153	231	242	248

M = male, F = female, m = management, u = union

4. Were gender differences reflected in the percent of agreements accepted of those proposed? There was no difference in percent of agreements accepted as a function of the male-female composition of opposing teams or opposing head negotiators.

5. Were gender differences reflected in the reported strike situations? There was no difference in strike situations as a function of the male-female composition of opposing teams or opposing head negotiators.

6. Were gender differences reflected in conflict of interest (as measured by differential average percent of increase in salaries between negotiating teams and/or head negotiator and their constituency)? There was no difference in conflict of interest as a function of the male-female composition of the teams or gender of head negotiators. Table 6 shows the average percent increase for negotiators and for non-negotiators.

Table 6. Gender and Average Negotiated Percent of Salary Increase for Union Representatives.

<u>Team Composition</u>	<u>% Increase</u>	<u>Head Negotiators</u>	<u>% Increase</u>
Male-Male	10.30	Male-Male	10.13
Male-Female	10.27	Male-Female	11.44
Female-Male	12.59	Female-Male	13.72
Female-Female	10.58	Female-Female	10.92

Table 7. Representative Gender and Average Percent of Constituent Salary Increases.

<u>Team Composition</u>	<u>% Increase</u>	<u>Head Negotiators</u>	<u>% Increase</u>
Male-Male	9.81	Male-Male	9.69
Male-Female	10.25	Male-Female	9.76
Female-Male	9.22	Female-Male	10.16
Female-Female	7.94	Female-Female	8.18

Conflict of interest in the role of negotiator has been accepted and acknowledged even by large professional organizations such as the N.E.A. Though no difference in conflict of interest was revealed as a function of gender, Table 7 clarifies that the underlying conflict of interest in this situation was present by differences in the average percent of salary increase between the representatives (teams and head negotiators) and those they represented.

In summary, significant differences as a function of male-female composition of the opposing teams and/or gender of the head negotiators were revealed in two areas: in the precipitation of an impasse situation, where team gender composition had an effect, and in the total time in days required to complete a contract, where differences were a function of a two way interaction.

Values Survey

Data regarding the eighteen terminal and eighteen instrumental values, priority ranked by management negotiators, union negotiators, and non-negotiators, were analyzed with regard to male-female and status differences. Each value was examined independently using general linear model procedures. The alpha level for rejection of the null hypothesis was set at .05. The results of the analysis are reported in Tables 8 and 9. (Refer to Appendices F and G for raw data.)

Table 8. Gender and Status Differences in Terminal Values.

<u>Terminal Values*</u>	<u>Significant Differences</u>
1. A Comfortable Life (prosperous life)	gender-rated more important by females than males
2. An Exciting Life	none
3. A Sense of Accomplishment (lasting contribution)	none
4. A World at Peace (free of war and conflict)	none

*See Appendix F for additional breakdown of outcomes.

<u>Terminal Values</u>	<u>Significant Differences</u>
5. A World of Beauty	gender-rated more important by females than males status a. between management negotiators and union negotiators-rated more important by management than union b. between union negotiators and workers-rated more important by workers than union
6. Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)	none
7. Family Security (taking care of loved ones)	none
8. Freedom (independence, free choice)	gender-rated more important by males than females
9. Happiness (contentedness)	none
10. Inner Harmony (freedom from inner conflict)	none
11. Mature Love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)	none
12. National Security (protection from attack)	gender-rated more important by males than females
13. Pleasure (enjoyable, leisurely life)	none
14. Salvation (saved, eternal life)	interaction (see Figure 1)
15. Self-respect (self-esteem)	none
16. Social Recognition (respect, admiration)	status-between union negotiators and non- negotiators-rated more important by union negotiators than workers (non-negotiators)

<u>Terminal Values</u>	<u>Significant Differences</u>
17. True Friendship (close companionship)	interaction (see Figure 2) gender* status
18. Wisdom (mature understanding of life)	none

*See Appendix F for additional breakdown of outcomes.

Table 9. Gender and Status Differences in Instrumental Values.

<u>Instrumental Values</u>	<u>Significant Differences*</u>
1. Ambitious (hard working)	none
2. Broadminded (open-minded)	none
3. Capable (competent, effective)	none
4. Cheerful (lighthearted, joyful)	none
5. Clean (neat, tidy)	none
6. Courageous (standing up for your beliefs)	gender-rated more important by males than females
7. Forgiving (willing to pardon others)	gender-rated more important by females than males
8. Helpful (working for the welfare of others)	none
9. Honest (sincere, truthful)	status-between the union negotiators and non- negotiators-rated more important by non-negotiators than by union negotiators

*See Appendix G for additional breakdown of outcomes.

<u>Instrumental Values</u>	<u>Significant Differences</u>
10. Imaginative (daring, creative)	gender-rated more important by males than females status-between management negotiators and union negotiators-rated more important by management negotiators than by union negotiators
11. Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient)	status-between management negotiators and union negotiators, between management negotiators and non-negotiators-rated more important by management negotiators than by union negotiators or non-negotiators
12. Intellectual (intellectual, reflective)	status-between management negotiators and union negotiators-rated more important by management negotiators than union negotiators and more important by non-negotiators than union negotiators
13. Logical (consistent, rational)	interaction (see Figure 3) gender status-rated more important by males than females
14. Loving (affectionate, tender)	gender-rated more important by females than males
15. Obedient (dutiful, respectful)	none
16. Polite (courteous, well-mannered)	gender-rated more important by females than males interaction (see Figure 4) gender status
17. Responsible (dependable, reliable)	gender-rated more important by females than males

<u>Instrumental Values</u>	<u>Significant Differences</u>
18. Self-Controlled (restrained, self-disciplined)	status-between management negotiators and union negotiators-rated more important by union negotiators between union negotiators and non-negotiators-rated more important by union negotiators than non- negotiators (see Figure 5)

Figures 1 to 4 are introduced for clarification when an interaction was found between status and gender. The lower number represents more importance, while the higher number represents less importance. Figure 5 represents ratings for instrumental value 18 to clarify the reported status differences.

As the status of females increased their ratings of the relative importance of salvation decreased in importance. As the status of males increased their ratings of the relative importance of salvation increased. (Figure 1)

As the status of females changed their rating of the relative importance of true friendship changed. It was rated more important by female union negotiators than either female management or female non-negotiators. As the status of males increased their ratings of the relative importance of the value true friendship decreased with considerable difference between the ratings of non-negotiators and the negotiators. (Figure 2)

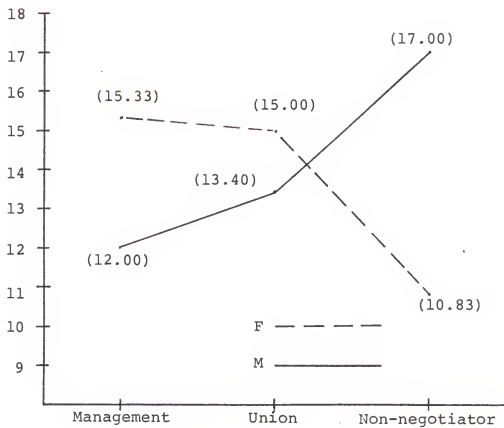


Figure 1. Influence of Gender and Status on Rated Importance of Salvation (Clarification of the Interaction).

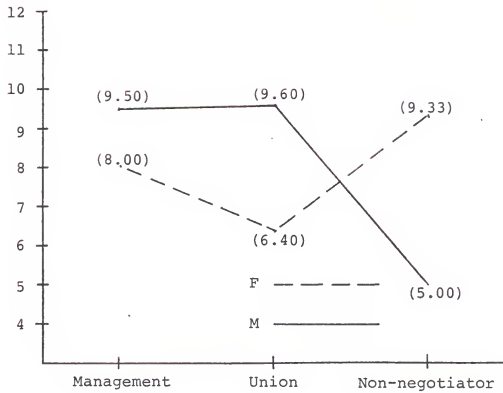


Figure 2. Influence of Gender and Status on Rated Importance of True Friendship (Clarification of the Interaction).

Females rated logical less important than males in all groups. As the status of females changed their ratings of the relative importance of the value logical changed with considerable difference between union negotiators and the other two groups (union negotiators rated this less important than management and non-negotiators). As the status of males changed their rating of the relative importance of the value logical changed with the greatest difference between union negotiators and the other two groups (union negotiators rated this more important than management and non-negotiators). (Figure 3)

As the status of females changed their rating of the relative importance of the value polite changed. Females in the position of union negotiators rated polite considerably more important than management or non-negotiators. As the status of males changed their rating of the relative importance of the value polite changed. Males in the position of union negotiators rated polite less important than those in the positions of management or non-negotiators. (Figure 4)

As the status of females changed their rating of the relative importance of the value self-controlled changed. Females in the position of union negotiators rated self-controlled considerably more important than either females in management or non-negotiator positions. This same change in the rating of the relative importance of self-controlled was noted for males. (Figure 5)

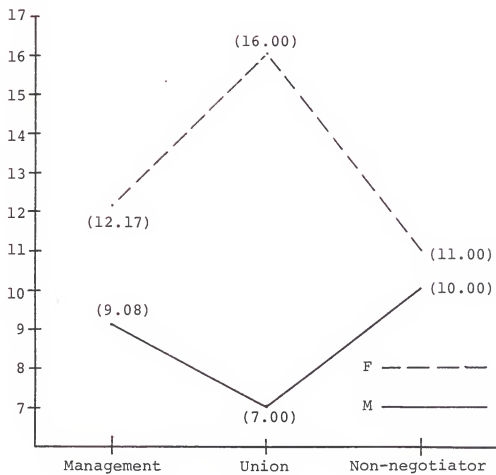


Figure 3. Influence of Gender and Status on Rated Importance of Logical (Clarification of the Interaction).

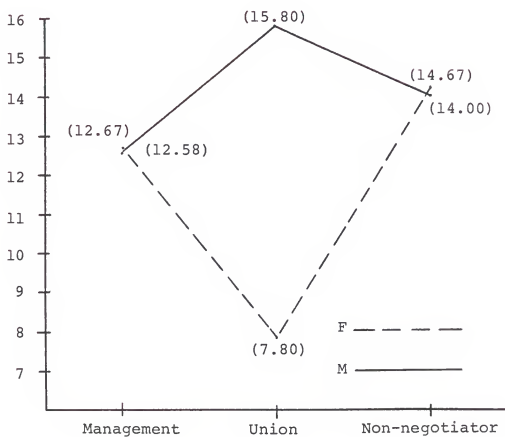


Figure 4. Influence of Gender and Status on Rated Importance of Polite (Clarification of the Interaction).

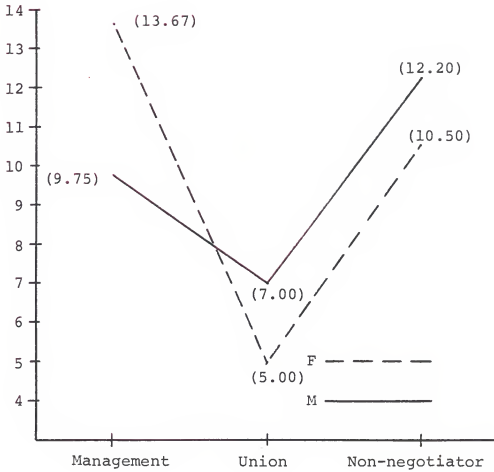


Figure 5. Clarification of Effects of Status on Rated Importance of Self-Controlled.

In summary, significant gender differences reflecting terminal values priorities were a comfortable life, a world of beauty, freedom, and national security. A comfortable life and a world of beauty were rated more important by females than males. Freedom and national security were rated more important by males than females. Differences in the terminal values social recognition appeared to be a function of social status and were rated more important by union negotiators than by non-negotiators. Differences in the terminal values salvation and true friendship appeared as the function of an interaction by gender and social status (see Figures 1 and 2). Gender differences in instrumental values were revealed for courageous, forgiving, imaginative, loving, polite, and responsible. The values forgiving, loving, polite, and responsible were rated significantly more important by females than by males. Courageous and imaginative were rated significantly more important by males than by females. Differences in the values honest, imaginative, independent, intellectual, and self-control appeared to be a function of social status.

The direction of differences as a function of status follows: Honest was rated more important by non-negotiators than by union negotiators; imaginative was rated more important by management negotiators than by union negotiators; independent was rated more important by management negotiators than by union negotiators or by non-negotiators; intellectual was rated more important by management negotiators than by

union negotiators and more important by non-negotiators than by union negotiators; and self-controlled was rated more important by union negotiators than by management negotiators and more important by union negotiators than by non-negotiators. Differences in the instrumental values logical and polite appeared to be a function of interaction between gender and social status (see Figures 3 and 4).

As noted earlier, thirty-six values were individually examined. Of the 36 total values, data on 19 values revealed group differences as a function of gender and/or status or an interaction with these two variables. Given the relatively small and homogeneous population sampled, it seems reasonable to suggest even greater differences and perhaps additional differences might be revealed by a more heterogeneous population (more varied population). It would be interesting to know if a larger population might reveal patterns in value and status effects on gender.

It appears from the results of analysis of these two surveys, the Negotiations Survey and the Values Survey, that gender differences may have some effect on negotiation outcomes. The differences noted were a function of gender and/or status or an interaction of both.

CHAPTER V
CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION,
IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to determine if gender differences in behavior exist that would be reflected in the personal values of negotiators and the outcomes of negotiations. A review of the literature revealed a great deal of scholarly interest in sex differences in behavior. These interests related to the areas of biology, social sciences, and education. There was, however, a lack of information that might begin to integrate these fields of interest. Collective bargaining and the role demands of a negotiator offered an environment in which differences might be revealed both by gender and social status. The literature relevant to gender differences clearly did not present its relationship to values or social status. Neither did it indicate how such a relationship might affect a situation such as collective bargaining. This study investigated seven research questions about gender differences, values, and status in the negotiation situation with two instruments: a Negotiations Survey and a Value Survey.

Results firmly grounded in the data indicated some differences in the outcomes of negotiations as a function of the gender of the negotiators. Specifically, there was a difference in the precipitation of impasse as a function of the

gender composition of the opposing teams and a difference in the total time required to complete a contract where the difference was a function of a two-way interaction (gender composition of opposing team and gender of opposing head negotiators). Differences in terminal and instrumental values were also illuminated as a function of gender and/or status. Thirty-six (36) values were individually examined and data on 19 revealed differences as a function of gender and/or status or an interaction with these two variables.

This study was exploratory in nature, it does not deal with the political interactions of the negotiation situation but was designed to illuminate interesting questions. There may be a relation between values and negotiation but to make any causal statement would be an extension of the data. In any further studies it might be useful to include a non-negotiator sample within the management group for the purpose of comparison.

Discussion, Implications, and Speculations

The seven questions addressed in this investigation were exploratory and the results yielded fertile ground for inference and speculation from which to design further studies.

1. Would the gender of the opposing head negotiators and/or the gender composition of the negotiation teams representing the union and management have a significant impact on the occurrence of an impasse? There were no significant main effects. Differences revealed were a function of a two-way interaction. The percent revealed in Table 2 indicates

the opposing team compositions and the percent of times those combinations reported that the impasse situation was encountered. It might be possible to infer that in opposing teams where females had the higher status position and males the lower status position impasse was more likely to be precipitated. In both situations where the gender composition of teams differed, regardless of status, there were more reported impasses than in situations where the opposing team composition was homogeneous with regard to gender.

2. Would the gender of the opposing head negotiators and/or the gender composition of the opposing negotiation teams have a significant impact on the number of meetings necessary to complete a contract? No significant differences were revealed, a matter which was interesting in itself, when considering the results of the analysis for the next question. (See question 3 for discussion.) It would seem that the meetings are more fruitful for some combinations.

3. Would the gender of the opposing head negotiators and/or the gender composition of the opposing negotiation teams have a significant impact on the total time necessary to complete contract negotiations? There were no significant main effects. A two-way interaction for gender of opposing head negotiators and gender composition of opposing teams was significant. The management negotiation teams designated male composition opposing the union negotiation teams designated female composition completed negotiations in least time. (See Table 3.)

In opposing negotiation teams where females had the higher status position and males the lower status position the negotiation process took longer. In opposing negotiation teams where males had the higher status position and females the lower status position the negotiations took the least time in days. Where opposing teams were homogeneous as to gender the times were comparable. (See Table 4.)

The absence of females in certain cells (this sample is from a real population--some combinations were not available in the data) makes expansion of the discussion difficult. It is of interest, however, that no usable returns were available with these combinations. (See Table 5.)

Opposing male head negotiators with female teams took the least time to complete negotiations. Opposing male and female head negotiators with male teams took the most time to complete negotiations. It may be possible to infer that the status position of the female head negotiators with the male team affected this interaction (see results from question 1); however, further studies of this phenomenon would have to be designed specifically to gain that information.

4. Would the gender of opposing head negotiators and/or the gender composition of opposing negotiators' teams have a significant impact on the percent of agreements completed? No significant differences were revealed. The pattern is included in Table 10 simply to provide information to the reader. (The lack of certain combinations in the population suggests the need for more extensive study.)

Table 10. Gender/Status: Representative Population and Percent of Agreements Completed.

<u>Board-Union Team Composition</u>	<u>Board-Union Head Negotiators</u>			
	<u>Mm-Mu % Completed</u>	<u>Mm-Fu % Completed</u>	<u>Fm-Mu % Completed</u>	<u>Fm-Fu % Completed</u>
Mm-Mu	50.40	47.96	-	-
Mm-Fu	63.01	71.97	-	-
Fm-Fu	52.26	100.00	43.72	-
Fm-Fu	69.44	78.00	66.67	77.14

M - male, F = female, m = management, u = union

5. Would the gender of the opposing head negotiators and/or the gender composition of the opposing negotiations teams have a significant impact on the occurrence of a strike? There were no significant differences for this variable. It should be noted that there were a limited number of strikes reported. The investigator suggests it would be useful to find populations having strikes and compare them to populations not having strikes in order to gain gender and status information. (To do this it might be useful to consider an industrial population.)

6. Would the gender of the head negotiator representing the union and/or the gender of the union negotiating team have a significant impact on conflict of interest as measured by differences in the percentages of increase between representatives and their constituents. (See Tables 6 and 7.) It was no less difficult for females to represent others

while also representing themselves than for men to represent others while also representing themselves.

7. Would gender differences be reflected in the personal (terminal and instrumental) values of negotiators? If so, would these differences remain intact across social status lines (established by differences in economics and access to power) of the positions management negotiator, union negotiator, and non-negotiator?

Terminal Values

Analysis indicated significant gender differences (see Appendices F and G for breakdown by gender and status) in the terminal values of a comfortable life (more important to females than males), a world of beauty (more important to females than males), freedom (more important to males than females), and national security (more important to males than females). Significant interaction of status and gender was found for the values salvation and true friendship. Significant differences by status were noted for a world of beauty (most important to female management and female workers, least important to male union and female union) and social recognition (most important to female and male union, least important to workers). No significant gender or status differences were found for the terminal values an exciting life, a sense of accomplishment, a world of peace, equality, family security, happiness, inner harmony, mature love, pleasure, self-respect, and wisdom.

These results suggest that gender differences in terminal values do exist. There appear to be differences due to status alone, gender alone, and in some cases as a function of an interaction between status and gender. It may be possible to infer that females, rating responsible, a comfortable life, loving, forgiving, polite, and a world of beauty significantly more important than males might feel more sense of responsibility for others and the standard of living available to others as well as themselves. In a negotiation situation the inference could be made that it might be easier for them to communicate with others who have the same priorities. This might also be said of males: by rating freedom, national security, courageous, imaginative, and logical significantly more important than females, a common frame of reference in priorities might make it easier to communicate with others whose priorities are similar. The communication between persons holding different views of the world, in terms of their values and priorities, may be incomplete or ambiguous. This suggests that sensitivity to the others' beliefs, as well as one's own beliefs, and their perspective on the world and relative priorities in it, would be necessary to interact effectively. Although this is speculative at this time, if males and females maintain different world views, then the conditions of interaction between them need to be investigated in order to develop mutual understandings.

In this study gender differences in interaction were revealed in the negotiation setting that could be explained

by the ability to communicate more effectively within gender perspectives. Within status lines management representatives and non-negotiating personnel indicated that honest, imaginative, independent, and intellectual were more important priorities than union representatives. Given that these results were obtained from a small sample there exists the possibility that additional investigation with larger more heterogeneous samples might reveal additional differences or patterns of difference in various populations.

Instrumental Values

Analysis indicated significant gender differences (see Appendices F and G for breakdown by gender and status) in the instrumental values courageous (more important to males than females), forgiving (more important to females than males), imaginative (more important to males than females), logical (more important to males than females), loving (more important to females than males), polite (more important to females than males), and responsible (more important to females than males). Significant differences as a function of status were indicated for the instrumental values honest (more important to workers and management than to union), imaginative (more important to management than to union), independent (more important to management than to union or workers), intellectual (more important to management than to union), and self-controlled (more important to union than to management or workers). A two-way interaction for gender and status was significant for the values logical and polite.

No significant gender or status differences were indicated for the instrumental values ambitious, broad-minded, capable, cheerful, clean, helpful, and obedient. These results also indicate that status affects instrumental values and in some cases gender and status interact to affect personal values (see Figures 1 through 4 for clarification). Again, it should be noted that this information is based on a small sample; however, the results suggest that further investigation might be fruitful.

The formulation of conclusions, speculations, or interesting questions should contribute to literature on gender differences as well as provide a socio-economic, or status, basis from which to investigate the possibility of changing values, and additional considerations for those who will negotiate or choose representatives to negotiate for them. Looking at education as a mandated government service which is supported by our society, this investigation might provide impetus to further examine the ways in which values and gender differences may affect negotiations in education.

There was evidence supporting the notion of gender differences in negotiation outcomes and in the development of personal values. There was also evidence supporting the idea that social status affects values to the degree that in some circumstances biological predispositions or innate gender differences are masked. Since males and females had fewer differences in terminal values than instrumental values, it would appear that while many of the same ends are considered a priority, the means by which to meet those ends might

be prioritized quite differently. The limited number of women in the position of head negotiator for both management and union populations may have reduced the chances of illuminating differences and similarities attributable to that group. Although the investigator believes that the responses received were representative, the analysis was done without loading so the effects of the values of a larger number of females in high status positions were probably not reflected due to the actual low population of females in that position.

Recommendations

As roles change for males and females, the effects of the environment and model behavior continue to interact with biological responses and change for each generation to follow. It will be of benefit to be attuned to those changes in a manner affording greater understanding of the consequent needs in the education and socialization processes. In Rokeach's The Nature of Human Values (1973) he notes, "we may reasonably expect to find many differences associated with sex, since there is a great deal of evidence to suggest that society socializes men and women to play their sex roles very differently. Men, for example, are conditioned to place a higher value on achievement and intellectual pursuits; women are conditioned to place a higher value on love, affiliation, and the family . . . it is reasonable to expect that variations in traditional notions of masculinity-femininity will be reflected in variations of male and female value patterns."

In investigation of status Rokeach used education and income as status indicators. He found "whichever measure of

socio-economic status is employed, income or education, pervasive value differences are found between those of lower and higher status . . . between the two, education is a somewhat better indicator than income or social status . . ." (Rokeach 1973, p. 63). This investigation sampled only individuals in the field of education. All persons had at least a bachelors degree. A comparison of Rokeach's Terminal Values for American Men and Women (Rokeach, 1973, p. 57) and results of the present investigations--Gender Differences in Terminal Values (see Appendix H), suggests that value differences and similarities may be undergoing considerable change. In the 1973 investigation there were gender differences in 12 of the 18 terminal values. In the present investigation, there are gender differences in 4 of the 18 terminal values. Two of the four are the same as the 1973 study, a comfortable life and freedom, where the remaining two, a world of beauty and national security, were not differences in the previous study. Since status may have caused the comparison (all subjects had attained at least a bachelors level college education), it would be of interest to use a cross-section of the American population to compare with the original Rokeach results.

The same comparison for gender differences in instrumental values can be seen in Appendix I. Where previously eight values of the 18 were different as a function of gender presently seven are different, four of the original eight (forgiving, imaginative, logical, and loving) remaining different and courageous, polite, and responsible now different as a function of gender where previously they were similar. In future

investigations it might be useful to obtain the specific educational level of each individual in order to include degree attained as a variable.

In order to seek patterns from which to plan and respond adequately to social change, investigations that will illuminate connections between changes taking place are important. If gender roles and values are changing, and they appear to be, what plans can be made to reduce confusion while enhancing positive adaptation for our children? How are the changes related? If "species survival has been facilitated by physiological factors in the bonding of (a) mother and newborn . . . (what) recognition (needs to be) given to the reciprocal innate predisposition (of a) mother to relate intensely to the infant . . ." (Rossi, 1977a, p. 24), particularly when the caretaking function of mothers is undergoing change?

If social pressure, changes in the need or desire for power and status, changes in the family structure, changes in parenting and sexual role expectations, and lack of status and support systems are moving men and women, particularly women, to demean or view those most significant interactions of home-making, community building, educating, and caring for children as degrading, will society have gained or lost? If then up-grading "outside" work and the previously male roles are to be accepted, then it might be useful to remember that

fathering is often non-existent among other primates, and, among humans, it is more learned from women or required by the norms of kinship systems than it is innately predisposed in the male himself . . . there is even greater need for close bonding of the human infant to its mother than there is in any other species . . . no known society replaces the mother as primary infant tender. . . . (Rossi, 1977a, p. 5)

Concentrated compensatory training might be planned if men or others are to replace mothers in the care of infants and young children. Women have since the times of hunting and gathering societies "contributed through their productive labor half or more of the basic food staples consumed in their society" (Rossi, 1977a, p. 4). Division of labor then meant that while men ranged for large game hunting and defense, women had two jobs: bearing and raising the young while gathering food and hunting smaller game. Women continue to do more than one job, however, emphasis on the status and power of the male role appears to have a devaluing effect for the woman in the present social structure.

A biosocial perspective suggests that biological contributions impact what is learned and there are gender differences in the ease with which certain things are learned. Individuals in the areas of biology, social science, and education are in a position to integrate the diverse findings that strongly suggest an interactive model for development and for learning. If social and psychological factors influence hormone secretion and hormones influence behavior, the nature and extent of these interactions is certainly of importance when investigating the nature and extent of gender differences. One author investigating the effects of environment and modeling suggests that enhancement of self at the expense of others is learned in competitive environments while enhancement of self and others is learned in cooperative environments and enhancement of self with neither enhancement nor abuse of

others is learned in an individualistic learning environment (Bryant, 1977).

What is the use of this information if not to plan? If hormones that influence behavior are in turn influenced by the environment and exhibited behaviors, what then is the influence of developments such as women working through pregnancy, isolated and age-segregated family structures, stress of the new technological society, father-participation in childbirth, increases in the number of women leaving young children and infants while they work, the possibility of test-tube babies? What kinds of physiological changes might be precipitated and what effects might then be noted in behavior? Are both sexes moving toward sharing values, expectations, and priorities? What meaning, if any, would that have for those studying economics, endocrinology, or genetics? With changes in the types of environment, activities, support systems, ways of relating, and stresses, what new medical problems might be expected?

What social outcomes might be prepared for as gender differences increase, decrease, or change? What changes can be expected in the children of those who have endured different psychological stresses than previous generations? What are the prenatal effects of changes in child-caring practices? Gender differences and similarities impact on every situation from collective bargaining outcomes to child-rearing, from disease control to market analysis, and even in conflicts concerning expectations about life and

death¹ (Hansen, October, 1982a, p. 3). This investigation suggests that efforts to integrate the diversity of information regarding gender differences in biosocial perspective could be fruitful.

It seems that with the unprecedented amount of information about physiology, behavior, and learning, there should be a concerted effort to integrate information in order to plan, set priorities, and facilitate change. This investigation recommends removing any judgement of good or bad about gender differences and using energies in studies of what differences there are, what changes are occurring or might be expected to occur, and what the impact is of these differences and of the changes on various segments of society.

Returning briefly to the specific context of collective bargaining, in decisions related to such areas as discriminatory practices (Hansen, 1982a) care must be taken to integrate information from other areas. For example, the judgement of discrimination or inequity related to annuity payments relates to awareness of the variable levels of risk in which an individual falls as a function of job status. Job security risks differ considerably by position (Hansen, 1982b) and level of risk; it seems reasonable to suggest they might correlate with life expectations in terms of injury,

¹The Supreme Court agreed to hear a case to decide whether employee annuity plans can discriminate against women. In the retirement plan for Arizona state workers men and women paid equal amounts, however, women at retirement, received smaller payments (because insurance actuarial tables showed females lived longer than males). Lower courts said the annuity plan violated a 1964 federal law against sex bias. This decision and others that will include biology and employment have widespread ramifications.

medical needs, and duration. To the extent that women are now moving into more varied occupations, their life expectancy and risk of injury expectations will change (Walshok, 1981).

Length of employment and occupation have been found to be strongly correlated with the chance of being injured. "Laborers suffer injuries four times more often than average . . . craftsmen incur job injuries about 1.5 times the norm . . . professional and technical workers, managers and administrators, salesmen and clerical workers have injuries one-fourth as often as the norm." Blue collar workers comprising 40% of the work force have 77% of the injuries. White collar workers comprise 45% of the work force and have 12% of the injuries. "Some blue-collar groups are hurt 18 times more often than white-collarites . . . the nation's non-farm laborers had the highest incidence of job-injuries." (Hansen, 1982b)

If it is true that logic is not a priority in the conduct of bargaining (Duryea, Fisk, & Assoc., 1973) and women place a higher value on a comfortable life in a beautiful world while also giving priority to being loving, forgiving, and responsible, then it would seem reasonable to consider some positive outcomes of increasing the female population of representatives. However, if the differences in the priorities of males and females in their respective views of the world make their interaction incomplete or their communication ambiguous, it would be of importance to consider the gender of the opposing representatives. There is some indication that while females function in both a cooperative and competitive manner, they are less inclined to be exploitative than males. Persons conducting further research might consider differentiating between competitive and exploitative behaviors.

If negotiations are primarily undertaken in an adversary and gaming style, as presently required, this may influence the choice of representatives. On the other hand, if a problem-solving style was adapted, that too would influence the most effective choice of representatives. For example, if management personnel of both genders give priority to honest, imaginative, independent, and intellectual, then it seems reasonable to infer that possession of those traits might give an individual who bargained in a problem-solving context for the workers more respect and influence as a common base from which both union and management representatives could judge their interactions.

Overall it appears that there are gender differences in values and status. These differences appear to change with and may be influenced by the socio-economic demands of the society. Further investigations of the impact of the differences and changes might facilitate adequate planning and response to social change. Since collective bargaining outcomes affect large segments of society, it seems the negotiation context would remain an interesting area of investigation.

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A
ADDITIONAL SOURCES

Biological

Adkins, 1976, 1977.
Baker & Ehrhardt, 1974.
Barley, Ginsburg, & Greenstein, 1974.
Beach, 1976.
Bielert, 1978.
Davis, Porter, Burton, & Levine, 1976.
Doerr, Pirke, Kockott, & Dittmar, 1976.
Ehrhardt, 1974.
Fox, Vito, & Wieland, 1978.
Goy & Wallen, 1979.
Kolata, 1979.
McCauley & Ehrhardt, 1976.
McEwen, 1976.
Money & Schwartz, 1978.
Shapiro, Goldman, Steinbeck, & Neumann, 1976.
Ward, 1974.
Washburn & Dolhinow, 1972.

Social

Goldfoot & Wallen, 1978.
Joslyn, 1973.
Kahn, Hottes, & Davis, 1971.
Krebs, 1970, 1975.

Messe, 1979.

Money & Ehrhardt, 1980.

Rossi, 1970, 1977a, 1977b.

Rowell, 1978.

Wall, 1977.

Whiting & Whiting, 1974.

Educational

Ables, 1972.

Hutt, 1970.

Keasey, 1971.

Klein, Gould, & Corey, 1969.

Korner, 1973.

Lowenthal, Thurnher, & Chiriboga, 1975.

Rivenbark, 1971.

Ross, 1971.

Serbin, O'Leary, Kent, & Lonick, 1973.

Smith & Connolly, 1972.

Solomon & Ali, 1972.

Staub, 1971.

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B
NEGOTIATIONS SURVEY

Title of person completing this survey

District Optional

Negotiations Survey

Please answer the following questions with regard to your last completed contract negotiation.

- A. Composition of School Board negotiating team.

Head negotiator (Circle one) Male Female

Number of female team members

Number of male team members

If an outside negotiator was hired, what was the School Board's chief spokesman?

(Circle one) Male Female

- B. Composition of Union negotiating team.

DOLLAR AMOUNT OF SALARY

	Circle		Prior to most recent contract negotiations		Year	After most recent contract negotiations		Year
	One							
Head Negotiator	M	F		()			()	
Team Member 1	M	F		()			()	
Team Member 2	M	F		()			()	
Team Member 3	M	F		()			()	
Team Member 4	M	F		()			()	
Team Member 5	M	F		()			()	

Average teacher's salary for the year prior to the most recently negotiated contract.

Average teacher's salary for the most recent contract year.

C. Most Recent Contract Negotiations

1. Number of times the negotiating teams for the Board and Union met. _____

2. Date negotiations began. _____
Month/Year

3. Date contract was completed. _____
Month/Year

4. Was there an impasse? _____ Yes _____ No
A strike? _____ Yes _____ No

5. Number of issues to negotiate on the initial proposal. _____

6. Number of agreements negotiated of the initial proposal items. _____

JLD

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C
ROKEACH VALUE SURVEY

VALUE SURVEY

BIRTH DATE _____ SEX: MALE _____ FEMALE _____

CITY AND STATE OF BIRTH _____

NAME (FILL IN ONLY IF REQUESTED) _____

HALGREN TESTS
873 PERSIMMON AVE.
SUNNYVALE, CALIFORNIA 94087

1. _____ A COMFORTABLE LIFE
(a prosperous life)
2. _____ AN EXCITING LIFE
(a stimulating, active life)
3. _____ A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT
(lasting contribution)
4. _____ A WORLD AT PEACE
(free of war and conflict)
5. _____ A WORLD OF BEAUTY
(beauty of nature and the arts)
6. _____ EQUALITY (brotherhood,
equal opportunity for all)
7. _____ FAMILY SECURITY
(taking care of loved ones)
8. _____ FREEDOM
(independence, free choice)
9. _____ HAPPINESS
(contentedness)
10. _____ INNER HARMONY
(freedom from inner conflict)
11. _____ MATURE LOVE
(sexual and spiritual intimacy)
12. _____ NATIONAL SECURITY
(protection from attack)
13. _____ PLEASURE
(an enjoyable, leisurely life)
14. _____ SALVATION
(saved, eternal life)
15. _____ SELF-RESPECT
(self-esteem)
16. _____ SOCIAL RECOGNITION
(respect, admiration)
17. _____ TRUE FRIENDSHIP
(close companionship)
18. _____ WISDOM
(a mature understanding of life)

1. _____ AMBITIOUS
(hard-working, aspiring)
2. _____ BROADMINDED
(open-minded)
3. _____ CAPABLE
(competent, effective)
4. _____ CHEERFUL
(lighthearted, joyful)
5. _____ CLEAN
(neat, tidy)
6. _____ COURAGEOUS
(standing up for your beliefs)
7. _____ FORGIVING
(willing to pardon others)
8. _____ HELPFUL (working
for the welfare of others)
9. _____ HONEST
(sincere, truthful)
10. _____ IMAGINATIVE
(daring, creative)
11. _____ INDEPENDENT
(self-reliant, self-sufficient)
12. _____ INTELLECTUAL
(intelligent, reflective)
13. _____ LOGICAL
(consistent, rational)
14. _____ LOVING
(affectionate, tender)
15. _____ OBEDIENT
(dutiful, respectful)
16. _____ POLITE
(courteous, well-mannered)
17. _____ RESPONSIBLE
(dependable, reliable)
18. _____ SELF-CONTROLLED
(restrained, self-disciplined)

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D
QUESTIONNAIRE COVER LETTER

Dear Sir:

I am in the process of completing my dissertation at the University of Florida as the first step in researching variables affecting contract negotiations and practical applications to facilitate negotiation interactions. Your responses to the enclosed questionnaire will provide vital information and be greatly appreciated. A self-addressed envelope has been provided for its return.

Please feel free to call me at 609-448-7668 after 5:00 PM if you have any question or concern. An outline of the results will be furnished to each responding district on request.

Cordially,

Juno L. Delano

JLD

ENC.: Questionnaire

APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E
RIDGEFIELD PARK DECISION

The following items have been held to be required subjects of bargaining by PERC or the courts under Chapter 123:¹

Compensation

Custodial duties

Disciplinary procedures for employees

Duty free lunch period

Evaluation procedures

Fair dismissal procedures

Grievance procedures

Holidays

Hours

Impact of most permissive decisions (see Illegal topics)

Impact of RIF decision on remaining teachers

Impact of RIF decision on rified tenured teachers
consistent with 18A

Insurance

Job security (for employees not covered by tenure
statute)

Length of collective bargaining agreement

Lesson plans, teacher possession of

Payment for accumulated sick leave upon retirement

¹If a panel of the Appellate Division takes a position opposite PERC, the court position is the one listed here.

Past practice clause

Personal leave

Physical working facilities

Posting procedures for vacancies

Procedures for promotion and selection of department
chairmen

Procedures for the selection of summer employees

RIF and recall procedures for tenured teachers which
are consistent with 18A

Safety issues

Tuition reimbursement

Vacations

Work load

Work day, length of

Work year, length of¹

The following items were determined by PERC or the lower courts to be permissive topics of negotiation. However, the New Jersey Supreme Court's decision in Ridgefield Park which struck down the permissive category rendered these issues illegal and unenforceable:²

Absenteeism and the tardiness policies; however,
discipline aspects of the policies are mandatory

Academic calendar

Affirmative action plans

Assignments

¹This is generally mandatory for public employees, however, for teachers it is mandatory only to those days in excess of the 180 minimum required for state aid.

²If a panel of the Appellate Division takes a position opposite PERC, the court position is the one listed here.

Audiovisual equipment, use of
Budget formulation
Class size
Contact time for students
Curriculum
Decision to assign cafeteria, corridor, playground,
bus supervision
Decision to reschedule snow days in teacher vacation
period
Decision to go to split sessions
Facilities relating to the educational process
Lesson plans, format of
Preference on substitute list for rified tenured
teachers
Productivity studies
Qualifications for employment
Qualifications for promotion
Qualifications for summer school employment
Staffing, number of employees, manpower levels
Student safety
Student testing
Sunshine bargaining
Transfer
Use of teacher aides

The following items have been specifically held to be illegal by PERC or the courts under Chapter 123 (remember, any agreement on an illegal subject is invalid and unenforceable).¹

¹If a panel of the Appellate Division takes a position opposite PERC, the court position is the one listed here.

It should be noted that it is likely that issues once determined to be permissive may now fall in this category:

Decision to RIF

Early retirement incentives

Evaluation criteria

Extended sick leave

Impact of RIF decision on rified nontenured teachers

Maintenance of membership

Pensions

Procedures for rifting and recalling nontenured teachers

Procedures for rifting tenured teachers which do not
adhere to Title 18A

Seniority provisions inconsistent with 18A

Student grievance procedures

Withholding of increments

APPENDIX F

APPENDIX F
ANALYSIS FOR GENDER AND STATUS EFFECTS ON
PRIORITY RATINGS OF 18 TERMINAL VALUES

<u>Terminal Values</u>					
<u>Average Breakdown by Gender and Negotiator Status</u>					
	<u>Gender</u>	<u>Management</u>	<u>Union</u>	<u>Non-Negotiator</u>	<u>Row Total</u>
A Comfortable Life ^a	Male	11.75	11.80	8.20	10.95
	Female	6.83	1.20	7.00	5.24
	Total	10.11	6.50	7.55	-
An Exciting Life	Male	9.17	13.80	11.80	10.82
	Female	13.17	11.80	14.67	13.29
	Total	10.50	12.80	13.36	-
A Sense of Accomplishment	Male	6.08	4.20	8.40	6.18
	Female	5.67	8.80	5.67	6.59
	Total	5.94	6.50	6.91	-
A World at Peace	Male	11.42	8.80	9.60	10.41
	Female	9.00	9.60	8.00	8.82
	Total	10.61	9.20	8.73	-
A World of Beauty ^{ab}	Male	14.08	16.60	12.00	14.18
	Female	9.67	15.20	11.17	11.82
	Total	12.61	15.90	11.55	-

^aSignificant gender differences

^bSignificant status differences

	<u>Gender</u>	<u>Management</u>	<u>Union</u>	<u>Non-Negotiator</u>	<u>Row Total</u>
Equality	Male	14.42	11.40	12.40	13.27
	Female	13.50	14.00	13.50	13.65
	Total	14.11	12.70	13.00	-
Family Security	Male	4.08	4.40	4.20	4.18
	Female	3.17	3.80	1.67	3.00
	Total	3.94	4.10	2.82	-
Freedom ^a	Male	6.67	4.20	6.20	6.00
	Female	9.17	11.80	11.67	10.82
	Total	7.50	8.00	9.18	-
Happiness	Male	9.92	8.00	5.80	8.55
	Female	8.50	4.80	6.67	6.76
	Total	9.44	6.40	6.27	-
Inner Harmony	Male	4.92	6.40	6.60	5.64
	Female	5.83	7.20	6.50	6.47
	Total	5.22	6.80	6.55	-
Mature Love	Male	8.17	9.00	9.20	8.59
	Female	7.17	8.00	7.83	7.65
	Total	7.83	8.50	8.45	-
National Security ^a	Male	12.67	10.40	13.40	12.32
	Female	15.33	16.20	14.83	15.41
	Total	13.56	13.30	14.18	-

^aSignificant gender differences

	<u>Gender</u>	<u>Management</u>	<u>Union</u>	<u>Non-Negotiator</u>	<u>Row Total</u>
Pleasure	Male	13.75	14.80	10.80	13.32
	Female	13.83	10.80	13.00	12.65
	Total	13.78	12.80	12.00	-
Salvation ^c	Male	12.00	13.40	17.00	13.45
	Female	15.33	15.00	10.83	13.65
	Total	13.11	14.20	13.64	-
Self Respect	Male	4.25	5.20	5.80	4.82
	Female	5.00	6.80	7.83	6.53
	Total	4.50	6.00	6.91	-
Social Recognition ^b	Male	12.75	12.00	13.80	12.82
	Female	14.33	8.60	14.67	12.76
	Total	13.28	10.30	14.27	-
True Friendship ^c	Male	9.50	9.60	5.00	8.50
	Female	8.00	6.40	9.33	8.00
	Total	9.00	8.00	7.36	-
Wisdom	Male	5.42	7.00	10.80	7.00
	Female	7.00	11.00	6.17	7.88
	Total	5.94	9.00	8.27	-

^bSignificant status differences

^cInteraction

APPENDIX G

APPENDIX G
ANALYSIS FOR GENDER AND STATUS EFFECTS ON
PRIORITY RATINGS OF 18 INSTRUMENTAL VALUES

Instrumental Values
Average Breakdown by Gender and Negotiator Status

	<u>Gender</u>	<u>Management</u>	<u>Union</u>	<u>Non-</u> <u>Negotiator</u>	<u>Row</u> <u>Total</u>
Ambitious	Male	8.67	5.60	6.80	7.55
	Female	9.17	7.00	8.50	8.29
	Total	8.83	6.30	7.73	-
Broadminded	Male	8.50	9.40	10.00	9.05
	Female	8.17	9.60	9.50	9.06
	Total	8.39	9.50	9.73	-
Capable	Male	5.83	3.80	7.40	5.73
	Female	5.83	6.00	8.50	6.82
	Total	5.83	4.90	8.00	-
Cheerful	Male	10.25	14.40	10.80	11.32
	Female	11.50	10.80	11.50	11.29
	Total	10.67	12.60	11.18	-
Clean	Male	14.17	12.40	12.20	13.32
	Female	12.17	9.60	10.17	10.71
	Total	13.50	11.00	11.09	-

	<u>Gender</u>	<u>Management</u>	<u>Union</u>	<u>Non-Negotiator</u>	<u>Row Total</u>
Courageous ^a	Male	9.42	4.20	7.80	7.86
	Female	11.17	10.60	11.67	11.18
	Total	10.00	7.40	9.91	-
Forgiving ^a	Male	11.17	8.80	11.80	10.77
	Female	8.83	9.60	4.83	7.65
	Total	10.39	9.20	8.00	-
Helpful	Male	10.92	10.40	9.20	10.41
	Female	9.67	7.40	9.17	8.82
	Total	10.50	8.90	9.18	-
Honest ^b	Male	4.08	5.20	1.80	3.82
	Female	3.67	5.40	2.00	3.59
	Total	3.94	5.30	1.91	-
Imaginative ^{ab}	Male	8.75	12.60	7.00	9.23
	Female	12.00	15.80	13.33	13.59
	Total	9.83	14.20	10.45	-
Independent	Male	7.75	9.60	8.20	8.27
	Female	3.67	13.00	11.50	9.18
	Total	6.39	11.30	10.00	-
Intellectual ^b	Male	11.42	13.40	11.40	11.86
	Female	8.83	15.40	13.33	12.35
	Total	10.56	14.40	12.45	-

^aSignificant gender differences

^bSignificant status differences

	<u>Gender</u>	<u>Management</u>	<u>Union</u>	<u>Non-Negotiator</u>	<u>Row Total</u>
Logical ^{ac}	Male	9.08	7.00	10.00	8.82
	Female	12.17	15.60	10.50	12.59
	Total	10.11	11.30	10.27	-
Loving ^a	Male	9.08	10.00	8.60	9.18
	Female	6.67	7.60	3.83	5.94
	Total	8.28	8.80	6.00	-
Obedient	Male	14.50	15.20	14.20	14.59
	Female	17.67	13.40	13.50	14.94
	Total	15.56	14.30	13.82	-
Polite ^{ac}	Male	12.58	15.80	14.00	13.64
	Female	12.67	7.80	14.67	11.94
	Total	12.61	11.80	14.36	-
Responsible ^a	Male	5.08	6.20	7.60	5.91
	Female	3.50	1.40	4.00	3.06
	Total	4.56	3.80	5.64	-
Self Controlled ^b	Male	9.75	7.00	12.20	9.68
	Female	13.67	5.00	10.50	10.00
	Total	11.06	6.00	11.27	-

^aSignificant gender differences

^bSignificant status differences

^cInteraction

APPENDIX H

APPENDIX H
A COMPARISON OF TERMINAL VALUES
1973 AMERICAN SAMPLE AND
1982 AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL SAMPLE

	<u>1973M</u>	<u>1982M</u>	<u>1973F</u>	<u>1982F</u>	<u>1973P</u>	<u>1982E</u>
Comfortable Life	7.8	10.95	10.0	5.24	P*	.001
Exciting Life	14.6	10.82	15.8	13.29	P	-
Sense of Accomplishment	8.3	6.18	9.4	6.59	P	-
A World at Peace	3.8	10.41	3.0	8.82	P	-
A World of Beauty	13.6	14.18	13.5	11.82	-* +	.05 .008
Equality	8.9	13.27	8.3	13.65	-	-
Family Security	3.8	4.18	3.8	3.00	-	-
Freedom	4.9	6.00	6.1	10.82	P*	.001
Happiness	7.9	8.55	7.4	6.76	P	-
Inner Harmony	11.1	5.64	9.8	6.47	P	-
Mature Love	12.6	8.59	12.3	7.65	-	-
National Security	9.2	12.32	9.8	15.41	-*	.009
Pleasure	14.1	13.32	15.0	12.65	P	-
Salvation	9.9	13.45	7.3	13.65	P ^I	.05
Self Respect	8.2	4.82	7.4	6.53	P	-
Social Recognition	13.8	12.82	15.0	12.76	P ⁺	.05

	<u>1973M</u>	<u>1982M</u>	<u>1973F</u>	<u>1982F</u>	<u>1973E</u>	<u>1982E</u>
True Friendship	9.6	8.50	9.1	8.00	p ^I	.05
Wisdom	8.5	7.00	7.7	7.88	P	-

Key:

1973 = (Rokeach) American sample

1982 = present study Educational sample

M = male

F = female

P = significant gender difference 1973

E = Educational sample

* = significant gender difference 1982

+ = significant status difference 1982

I = interaction

APPENDIX I

APPENDIX I
A COMPARISON OF INSTRUMENTAL VALUES:
1973 AMERICAN SAMPLE AND
1982 AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL SAMPLE

	<u>1973M</u>	<u>1982M</u>	<u>1973F</u>	<u>1982F</u>	<u>1973P</u>	<u>1982E</u>
Ambitious	5.6	7.55	7.4	8.29	P	-
Broadminded	7.2	9.05	7.7	9.06	-	-
Capable	8.9	5.73	10.1	6.82	P	-
Cheerful	10.4	11.32	9.4	11.29	P	-
Clean	9.4	13.32	8.1	10.71	P	-
Courageous	7.5	7.86	8.1	11.18	-*	.01
Forgiving	8.2	10.77	6.4	7.65	P*	.04
Helpful	8.3	10.41	8.1	8.82	-	-
Honest	3.4	3.82	3.2	3.59	-+	.04
Imaginative	14.3	9.23	16.1	13.59	P* +	.01 .05
Independent	10.2	8.27	10.7	9.18	-+	.01
Intellectual	12.8	11.86	13.2	12.35	-+	.04
Logical	13.5	8.82	14.7	12.59	P+ I	.001 .02
Loving	10.9	9.18	8.6	5.94	P+	.03
Obedient	13.5	14.59	13.1	14.94	-	-
Polite	10.9	13.64	10.7	11.94	-* I	.03 .005
Responsible	6.6	5.91	6.8	3.06	-*	.003
Self controlled	9.7	9.68	9.5	10.00	-+	.007

(See next page for key.)

Key:

1973 = (Rokeach) American sample

1982 = present study Educational sample

M = male

F = female

P = significant gender difference 1973

E = Educational sample

* = significant gender difference 1982

+ = significant status difference 1982

I = interaction

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Juno Lee Delano was born in Linwood, California, on May 10, 1947. She graduated from Trenton High School, Trenton, New Jersey, in 1966.

After the birth of her first child she attended Trenton State College on a scholarship majoring in elementary education. Graduating in January, 1970, she taught elementary school in New Jersey for two years. In 1972 she was awarded a government grant and moved to Florida where she completed a Master of Rehabilitation Counseling degree with emphasis in vocational rehabilitation in March, 1973. She began consulting in communication and interaction skills in 1974 and also taught psychology as adjunct faculty for St. John's River Community College.

While employed as a school counselor she completed a Specialists degree in 1975 with emphasis in the area of counseling psychology and also earned certification as a school psychologist.

Ms. Delano was admitted to candidacy in the doctoral program in foundations of education with an emphasis in behavioral sciences at the University of Florida in 1976. In 1978 she accepted employment as coordinator of staff development and training for the Department of Health Rehabilitative Services at Sunland Center. In 1979 she accepted a position in Trenton, New Jersey, as a school psychologist. She will

complete the requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in August, 1983. She presently remains employed as a psychologist for the Special Services Program at Trenton Public Schools in New Jersey.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



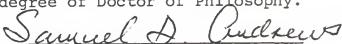
Arthur Newman, Chairman
Professor of Foundations of
Education

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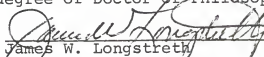
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This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Department of Foundations of Education in the College of Education and to the Graduate School, and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

August 1983



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